

ABSTRACT

EDWARDS-JOSEPH, ARLINE ROMA ANNETTA CATHRINE. The Relationship Between the Academic Self-Efficacy and Culture Shock among Caribbean Overseas College students Attending Universities in the United States. (Under the direction of Stanley Baker.)

This mixed-method research investigated the relationship between the academic self-efficacy and culture shock of Caribbean overseas university students in the United States. Seventy-two Caribbean overseas students, ranging from ages 18 to 41, completed a demographic form, the *College Academic Self-Efficacy Scale*, and the *Culture Shock Questionnaire* (CSQ). The following research questions were investigated for this study: (1) What is the relationship between academic self-efficacy and culture shock in the sample? (2) What is an emerging profile of academic self-efficacy in the sample? (3) What is an emerging profile of culture shock in the sample population? (4) What are the most common factors influencing academic self-efficacy according to the participants? (5) What are the most common factors influencing culture shock according to the participants?

Pearson Product Moment Correlation was utilized to assess the relationship between academic self-efficacy and culture shock. Descriptive statistics were also calculated and multiple regression analyses were conducted to assess whether or not the explanatory variables had a significant effect on academic self-efficacy and on culture shock. Data analysis showed a significant linear relationship between academic self-efficacy and culture shock, at an alpha

level of .01. However, none of the measured demographic variables had a significant linear relationship with academic self-efficacy, at an alpha level of .05.

The number of years a participant had lived in the US has a significant linear relationship with levels of culture shock at an alpha level of .01. However, at an alpha level of .05, a significant linear relationship between the other demographic variables and culture shock was not discovered.

A modified grounded theory, thematic approach was utilized to analyze factors influencing academic self-efficacy and culture shock. Educational background, faith and religion, and age were some of the emerging themes reported as affecting academic self-efficacy. Additionally, loneliness, anxiety and depression, and cultural identity differences were some of the emerging themes reported to influence culture shock.

The Relationship between the Academic Self-Efficacy and Culture Shock
Among Caribbean Overseas College Students Attending
Universities in the United States

by
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DEDICATION

To the love of my life, *Thomas C. Joseph, Jr. (Tommy)* for selflessly giving up the security of his life in Antigua to join me on this journey. I could never have done it without him. “Looks like we made, look how far we’ve come my baby.” -- Shania Twain.

To *Leonard Handelsman*: Thought you would be here. Rest in peace!

BIOGRAPHY

Arline R. A. C. Edwards-Joseph was born in Antigua, in the Caribbean. She first moved to the United States in 1984 to finish high school. After high school, she moved to Hampton, VA where she attended Hampton University for the first three years of undergraduate studies. She then transferred to North Carolina Central University (NCCU), Durham, to complete her Bachelor of Arts in Psychology. During her time at NCCU, Arline worked with the Duke University Fast Track Project, a longitudinal study, as a research assistant.

After completing undergraduate school, Arline returned to Antigua where she worked as a school counselor at the Ottos Comprehensive School, through the Ministry of Education and Culture. She conducted individual and group counseling with students as well as served as the advisor to the peer counseling program. After working at the secondary school for four years, Arline decided to return to North Carolina Central University where she earned a Masters of Counselor Education. Her thesis entitled, *An Evaluation of a “Communities in Schools” Program in North Carolina: Are Community Programs Effective in Schools?* She then became a North Carolina State Certified School Counselor.

Once again Arline returned to Antigua, where she married the love of her life. She worked as an admissions counselor at Crossroad Centre Antigua. After leaving there, she worked at the Antigua and Barbuda International Institute of Technology (ABIIT). At ABIIT she designed and developed the counseling

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In 2004, after working at ABIIT for two years, Arline received a scholarship from the Organization of American States. She therefore decided to pursue her doctoral degree in Counselor Education at North Carolina State University (NCSU), Raleigh. While at NCSU, she worked as a teacher and as a counselor. At the Cooperative Education Program, as a graduate assistant, she provided career counseling for both undergraduate and graduate students. At the Transition Program, she taught an undergraduate course on college survival skills. Additionally, she taught and supervised masters level students in the NCSU Counselor Education Program.

Arline served as the newsletter editor for the Counselor Education Graduate Students Association. She also served as the vice-president for the *Nu Sigma Chi Chapter of Chi Sigma Iota*. In 2005, she was an NBCC-I international fellow.

As part of her professional development and experience, Arline presented at state and national conferences. Most of her research and presentations have been about international issues in counseling and supervision. Most of this research has been about international students. She is a member of the American Counseling Association, American School Counseling Association,

Association for Counselor Education and Supervision, Southern Association for Counselor Education and Supervision, International Association of Counseling, and Association for Multicultural Counseling and Development.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

For the purpose of this study, international students (ISs) will be defined as individuals who travel overseas to engage in educational activities.

Additionally, for this study, Caribbean overseas students (the population of interest for the study) will be defined as individuals from that region who are in the United States to engage in academic activities. This group will include students from the U.S. Virgin Islands, the Bahamas and islands of South America considered to be part of the Caribbean (Guyana, Suriname, and French Guiana). Additionally, any student who grew up in the region, but may have been born elsewhere, including the United States, will also be considered as a Caribbean overseas student.

The migration of ISs, including Caribbean students, to pursue degrees in higher education represents a consistent trend; currently, the United States leads the world in having the most students involved in international education (Arthur, 2004). *The Open Doors*, an annual report published by the Institute of International Education, in January 2007, reported that there were 564,766 international students – associates' level, bachelor's level, master's level and doctoral level – enrolled in the colleges and universities throughout the United States during the 2005-2006 school year. This number represented 3.9 % of the total student body population, at colleges and universities throughout the U.S.

As the ISs population in the U.S. continues to grow, there has been increased attention placed on the educational and mental health issues of these students (Mori, 2000). The concentration on these students is probably because their needs may be considerable due to the high levels of adjustment related stressors they often encounter in their host cultures. Some of these stressors, appearing in the research literature, are issues such as academic efficacy, adjustment related stressors (academic and social), language barriers, acculturation and culture shock, and financial concerns (Chen, 1999). These adjustment stressors can affect a student's general self- efficacy beliefs and consequently, their perceived academic self-efficacy could serve as a source of stress. Additionally, their level of culture shock could serve as a stressor affecting their academic performance.

Bandura (1986) believes that emotional adaptation is aided when a person has a strong sense of self-efficacy about abilities and competence. Additionally, Maddux and Meier (1995) and Maddux (1995) stated that a strong sense of self-efficacy will also help individuals approach challenging situations without incapacitating anxiety and confusion. Therefore, it can be inferred that ISs who have a strong academic self-efficacy will tend to show a better level of acculturation (Poyrazli, Arbona, Nora, McPherson, & Pisecco, 2002) and vice versa.

Background for the Study

Currently, most of the research studies in the professional literature, about foreign students in the United States refer to Asian students (e.g., India, China, Korea, and Japan). Although these research data are helpful, they are not always applicable to non-Asian ISs, such as the Caribbean. Therefore, there is a need to further explore issues that may be affecting other ISs populations, such as the Caribbean overseas student population. The intent of the present study is to further explore issues that may be affecting Caribbean overseas students in the US.

As stated previously, a growing population of international students, in the U.S., is students from the Caribbean. Anecdotally, it is said that these students bring with them, to American universities, a good sense of academic efficacy. For students from the former British colonies as well as the current ones, this efficacy is often attributed to the fact that they have been immersed in the British school system model for most, if not all, of their academic lives; a system believed by some Caribbean parents to be superior to the American school system. Additionally, anecdotally, it is said that parents from the French islands, Dutch countries, Spanish islands (e.g. Cuba, and Puerto Rico), and U.S. Virgin Islands, share a similar opinion that their academic school systems are superior. It is also believed that because of their strict and rigid parental control as well as the strong religious influence, these students bring with them a better sense of

the need to do well and focus on academic activities to ensure superior success. It is also perceived that these students, for similar reasons, are able to better deal with and overcome adversities such as homesickness, racism and other acculturation and adjustment issues many ISs experience.

Unfortunately, there is very little in the professional literature about Caribbean overseas students. Moreover, there is no documented evidence that these students reported having a strong sense of academic efficacy while attending US universities. Additionally, there is no published research on factors that influence their efficacy or about their acculturation process. This includes their potential culture shock and the way they deal with that shock.

Conversely, there is considerable professional literature about Caribbean immigrants who have settled in the US. Gopaul-McNicol (1993) states that these immigrants have migrated, from their respective countries, in search of better economic conditions and educational opportunities for themselves or for their children.

Like most immigrants, Caribbean immigrants too experience acculturative stress and culture shock. However, because many Caribbean people come to the US as a result of what Gopaul-McNicol (1993) calls the “pull” factor, they tend to experience less acculturative stress. Gopaul-McNicol (1993) stated that the “pull” factor refers to people who leave home voluntarily for personal growth or to study abroad. Therefore, if Caribbean people actually do leave voluntarily for a

better life, it may be inferred that these immigrants, including ISs, may have less culture shock. However, Waters (1994) reports that Caribbean immigrants (including ISs) may experience some acculturation difficulty because of the feelings and immense pressure they sometimes experience in the US to identify only as “Black”. She reported that these immigrants have been referred to as “invisible immigrants” because, rather than being contrasted with other immigrants, they have been compared to and at times assumed to be Black Americans. Based on the comparison with Black Americans and not with other immigrants, it is possible to infer that these immigrants may not have their psychosocial needs such as culture shock, addressed. It could also be inferred that Caribbean overseas students may not have their psychosocial needs, including negative academic self-efficacy and culture shock, adequately addressed.

Theoretical Background

Two theoretical frameworks were used in the study. The first one is Social Cognitive theory (Bandura, 1963). Emphasis will be placed on self-efficacy, more specifically, academic self-efficacy. The second theory is acculturation, with emphasis placed on a component of one of the stages purported in the study, culture shock.

Social Cognitive Theory

Self-efficacy. Bandura's (1963) social cognitive theory has linked students' self-efficacy and motivation in academic settings. Moreover, there is extensive research literature showing that, "self-efficacy is a strong predictor of academic performance (Pajares, 1995)." Additionally, Maddux and Meier (1995) and Maddux (1995) stated that a strong sense of self-efficacy will also help individuals approach challenging situations without incapacitating anxiety and confusion. Therefore, it can be conjectured that ISs who have a strong academic self-efficacy will tend to show a better level of acculturation (Poyrazli, Consuelo, Nora, McPherson, & Pisecco, 2002).

Bandura (1997) believes that perceived self-efficacy is the belief individuals have about what they can do in different conditions with whatever skills they have rather than a measure of skill. People who demonstrate a strong sense of efficacy enhance their accomplishments and personal well-being (Bandura, 1994). These individuals, possessing high assurance in their capabilities, approach difficult tasks as challenges to be conquered and not to be avoided. Additionally, these individuals recover quickly from any adversity or setbacks. On the other hand, individuals who doubt their capabilities shy away from difficult tasks which they view as personal threats. They have low aspirations and weak commitment to the goals they have chosen to pursue. They dwell on personal deficiencies, obstacles they may encounter, and other

potentially adverse outcomes instead of concentrating on performing successfully. They reduce their efforts and readily give up at the sight of difficulty. Additionally, they have a hard time recovering their sense of efficacy after failure or setbacks (Bandura, 1994, 1997).

Self-efficacy beliefs are constructed from four main sources of information: “Enactive mastery experiences that serve as indicators of capability; vicarious experiences that alter efficacy beliefs through transmission of competencies and comparison with attainment of others; verbal persuasion and allied types of social influences that one possesses certain capabilities; and physiological and affective states from which people partly judge their capabilities, strengths, and vulnerability to dysfunction” Bandura (1997, p. 79). Information that is relevant for judging personal capabilities is not by itself enlightening; it is only informative through cognitive processing of efficacy information and through reflective thought. Therefore, a distinction must be drawn between information conveyed by experienced events and information as selected, weighted, and integrated into self-efficacy judgment (Pajares, 2002).

Academic self-efficacy. As stated previously, efficacy beliefs play an influential meditational part in academic attainment (Bandura, 1997). Academic self-efficacy refers to students’ confidence in their ability to carry out academic tasks such as preparing for exams and writing term papers (Zajacova, Lynch, & Espenshade, 2005). Academic self-efficacy has been consistently shown to

predict grades and persistence in college (Bandura, 1987; Owen, 1988; Lane & Lane, 2001; Poyrazli, Arbona, Nora, McPherson, & Pisecco, 2002). Bandura (1993) posits that self-efficacy beliefs affect college outcome by increasing students' motivation and persistence to master challenging academic tasks and by fostering the efficient use of acquired knowledge and skills. In fact, efficacy beliefs are thought to be so important to academics that Bandura (1997) stated, "Perceived self-efficacy is a better predictor of intellectual performance than skills alone" (p.216). Moreover, academic self-efficacy has also been linked to important non-academic variables, such as depression and pro-social behavior (Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara, & Pastorelli, 1996).

Acculturation Theory.

The concept of acculturation dates back to 1880, originating in anthropology (Berry, 1980). Since then, various models as well as definitions of the concept have been introduced throughout the professional literature. Chun, Balls-Organista, and Marin, (2003, p. xxiii) state that Redfield, Linton, and Herskovits (1936) established one of the classical definitions of acculturation theory as, "encompassing changes in original cultural patterns that occur as a result of ongoing contact among groups of individuals with different cultures." They also state that in 1954, the Social Science Research Council (SSRC) proposed an expanded definition stating that acculturation is the amalgamation of two or more independent cultural systems, "leading to dynamic processes that

include adaptation of value systems and transformation within relationships and personality traits (Chun et al., 2003, p. xxiii).”

Berry (1980) believes that it is possible to derive features and dimensions of acculturation theory. He listed these features as: (a) the basic nature of acculturation, (b) the characteristic course of acculturation, (c) the level at which acculturation takes place, and (d) issues of measurement, these will be discussed in detail in chapter two. He also stated that the development and expansion of these features was not meant to encompass worldwide features of acculturation, but rather to focus on the impact of dominant, contemporary North American societies on native peoples and ethnic groups. This situation would appropriately include ISs in the United States. Berry (1980) states that for the occurrence of acculturation in the nature dimension, it requires the contact between at least two independent cultural groups and there must also be change in one group or the other as a result of that contact. He believes that, although both groups change as a result of the contact, one group will be more dominant, contributing more to the flow of the cultural elements.

Berry (1980) proposes what he refers to as three-phase course to acculturation: contact (phase one), conflict (phase two), and adaptation (phase three). He reports that the first phase is necessary, the second phase is probable, and some form of the third phase is unavoidable. According to Berry (1980), contact between two groups is at the nucleus of acculturation. This

occurs because without contact there would be no acculturation. This contact may come about through invasions, educational activity, trade, and the like. He continues that accidental or short lived contact usually yields the least acculturation. On the other hand, the greatest acculturation takes place when the contact is as a result of deliberate takeover of a society or its skills and beliefs over an extended period of time. Unlike the contact phase, the conflict phase is not necessary for acculturation, but probable. The conflict phase he believes would occur if there is resistance to giving up original cultural values in order to accept the values of the dominant culture. Berry (1980) continues by stating that adaptation serves as a way to decrease or stabilize conflict. Of the three phases, he focused most of his writing on the adaptation phase. Additionally, Gopaul-McNicol (1993) states that Berry and his Associates proposed five stages of acculturation: (1) physical changes, (2) biological changes, (3) cultural changes, (4) New sets of social relationships, and (5) psychological and behavioral changes. Each stage has a distinct set of characteristics laid out by Berry, Kim, and Mok (1987). However for this study, only a characteristic of stage five, culture shock will be expanded upon.

Culture shock. Berry, Kim and Mok (1987) stated that an alteration in mental health status almost always occurs in some form or another as individuals attempt to adapt to their new milieu. This change, they say, is a result of culture shock. Culture shock is a psychological concern, characterize by symptoms

such as anxiety, depression, sleeping problems, fatigue, irritability, loneliness, forgetfulness, nostalgia, and feelings of not fitting in (Pedersen, 2004). It results from external changes and differences in the physical environment such as climate, food, transportation (Pedersen, 1991). Oberg (1972), believed to be the pioneer of the concept, proposed five stages of culture shock regarding immigrants: “(1) the immigrants feel euphoria about the exciting new culture, (2) failure to succeed leads to extreme dissatisfaction with the host culture. This is the period of psychological transition from back-home values to host-home values, (3) persons begin to understand the host culture and feel more in touch with themselves, (4) the host culture is viewed as offering both positive and negative alternatives, and (5) the immigrants return home and experience reverse culture shock (Gopaul-McNicol, 1993, pp. 16-17).”

Rationale for the Study

As previously stated, although there is considerable documentation regarding Caribbean immigrants in general, there are little data about Caribbean college students and psychosocial issues they may experience. Based on the dearth of data, there is a need for research addressing subjects such as academic efficacy and acculturation in this population to help counselors and counselor educators who will interact with this population to become better informed. Delgado-Romero and Sanabria's (2007) echoed this need with their

statement that one of the greatest challenges for counselors working with Caribbean college students is the lack of available research-based resources.

Goal of the Study

The goal of the current study was to gather data about the perceived academic self-efficacy and influences on the level of perceived culture shock in a sample of Caribbean students. There is hope that the findings will partially fill the current void in the professional literature. The following research questions will be addressed in the present study.

1. What is the relationship between academic self-efficacy and culture shock in the sample?
2. What is an emerging profile of academic self-efficacy in the sample?
3. What is an emerging profile of culture shock in the sample?
4. What are the most common factors influencing academic self-efficacy according to the participants?
5. What are the most common factors influencing culture shock according to the participants?

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this document, the following terms, listed in alphabetical order, are defined by the author unless otherwise noted.

1. *Acculturation*: A process involving two or more groups, with consequences for both; in effect, however, the contact experiences

have much greater impact on the non-dominant group and its members (Berry, 2001).

2. *African American*: Ethnic and racial group identifier used in the United States racial classification system for persons of African descent born in the United States. For the purposes of this study, African American does not include individuals born in African or Caribbean countries.

Black(s): Term was used as an adjective describing a group of Americans based on the hue of their skin. As a noun, a term used to identify a racial group of Americans of African descent.

3. *Caribbean (in this study)*: The islands of the five sub-regions defined by (Boswell, 2003): (1) The Greater Antilles (Cuba, Hispaniola, Jamaica, and Puerto Rico), (2) The Lesser Antilles (islands extending from the Virgin Islands in the north to Trinidad in the south), (3) The Bahamas and Turks and Caicos Islands, (4) Cayman Islands, and (5) The Netherlands Antilles (Aruba, Bonaire, and Curacao). Additionally, the islands of South America, considered to be part of the Caribbean, Guyana, Suriname, and French Guiana, will also be included.
4. *Caribbean students (in this study)* Overseas students from the Caribbean region who are in the United States to engage in academic activities. Students from the U.S. Virgin Islands, the Bahamas and islands of South America considered to be part of the Caribbean

(Guyana, Suriname, and French Guiana) will be included.

Additionally, any student who grew up in the region, but may have been born elsewhere, will also be considered as a Caribbean overseas student.

5. *Christian*: pertaining to Jesus Christ and His teachings.
6. *Cross-cultural Transition*: A process in which individuals experience a shift in their personal assumptions and worldview (Schlossber, 1992).
7. *Culture Shock*: A cumulative pervasive disorientation triggered by any radical change presenting unfamiliar or unexpected circumstances, such as those in a living/studying abroad experience.
8. *International/Foreign Student*: Individuals who travel overseas to engage in educational activities either on the primary, secondary or tertiary level. The terms international and foreign will be used interchangeably.
9. *White*: Racial group identifier used in the United States racial classification system for persons of European decent.

Organization of Chapters

There are five chapters in this dissertation. As evident above, the first chapter introduces the topic, background for the study, a brief introduction to the theories used for the study, the rationale for the study, the goals for the study, and definition of terms that will be used throughout.

The second chapter provides a review of the literature review for both the population of interest and the theories being utilized.

The third chapter includes a description of the participants, instrumentation, including a description and rationale for the instruments chosen to be used as well as the demographic survey designed for this study. The reliability and validity of the instruments are also stated. Following this, the procedure for data collection and data analysis are presented. Finally, research questions are given.

The fourth chapter will present the results of the study and the fifth chapter will discuss the results of the study. The fifth chapter will also provide a summary and an evaluation of the data results shown and how it answers the research questions posed. Additionally, the researcher's interpretation will also be given. Limitations of the study and implications for future research on Caribbean students and their participation in academic activities in US universities will also be discussed.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE AND THEORIES REVIEWS

This chapter presents a review of literature related to the population of interest (Caribbean overseas students) as well as a review of the two theories used as the theoretical foundation for this study. Firstly, a general overview of international students, their reasons for pursuing international education, and their status as transitional immigrants and learners are discussed. A brief discussion about ISs in US, followed by a brief introduction of Caribbean students in the United States is also reported. Secondly, since there are little data about Caribbean students in the U.S., a profile of other Caribbean sojourns/immigrants and their migration patterns is presented to allow for inferences about Caribbean students as immigrants. In addition, to help provide a better understanding of this migration pattern, a brief history (including a geographical history) of the Caribbean, leading to this pattern is presented. Thirdly, the theories and the relevant components (academic self-efficacy and culture shock) of each framework are discussed. Fourthly, a synthesis of the literature and theories is discussed, including relevance to other implications for research with the Caribbean international student population.

International Students

Arthur (2004), states that international students (ISs) have a critical role to play in the internationalization of education. She also believes that, “international

education is a dominant force in the export sector and is recognized as a major economic contribution to local economies” (p.1). International students being mobile between countries are a core mandate of international education (Knight, 2000). Similarly, Arthur (2000a, 2000b), believes that this product is a relatively untapped resource to prepare students for diverse cultural and professional practices in a global economy. However, though said to be relatively untapped, migration of students to pursue degrees in higher education represents a consistent trend. In fact, Bohm et al., (2002) report that the global demand for international education is unprecedented and the projections indicate a long term trend of growth with numbers expected to reach 7.2 million ISs in 2025 throughout the world.

Reasons for Pursuing International Education

There are varying reasons why international students from all over the world engage in overseas education. Some students, because of their superior academic qualifications in their home country, may be selected to study abroad. Others desire to experience living in another country; while some others are prompted by the political and economic conditions at home to make the sojourn to another country for education (Arthur, 2004). However, regardless of the reason that prompted them to become student sojourners, they are often referred to as what Arthur (2004) calls transitional immigrants.

International Students as Transitional Immigrants

International students are differentiated from other immigrants who travel from their home countries to work and live in other cultures. This differentiation is due to their distinct status as temporary sojourners (Martin & Harrell, 1996). This distinction creates a unique condition of their cross-cultural experience, often attributed to their being in transition; they are challenged to manage the transition away from their home country, the transition to living and learning in a new country and in some cases then manage the transition back home (Arthur, 2004).

The tendency is to treat these transitional immigrants as members of a homogenous group of learners (Arthur, 2004). However, the remarkable variability in academic and personal preparation makes exploring within group differences important. One reason for further exploration is the fact that the lack of international standards for educational programs in many countries leads to variability in the knowledge base of students (Arthur, 2004). She believes that the one size fits all expectations about academic performance may be unrealistic. For example, Dei (1992) stated that many students from developing countries choose to pursue foreign education because of limitations in the scope of their local curricula (Dei, 1992). However, it should not be assumed all ISs enter foreign educational institutions with an academic deficit (Arthur, 2004). She states that students, whose academic and employment background is more sophisticated than academic expectations in host country educational facilities,

may be frustrated because a lack of sufficient challenges they may perceive (Arthur, 2004).

Another tendency is to often assume that ISs represent the “cream of the crop” in terms of their academic goals and abilities in their foreign academic environment. However, it is important to mention that this assumption is not always the case. While some students may in fact be superior in their goal and abilities, there are those who may be less motivated and unprepared for the rigors of studying in a foreign country. Wan et al., (1992) state however, that many members of either group of international learners experience stress, often associated with academic concerns. They say that experiencing stress is probably because what is at stake for these students is more than the pressure to achieve academic success. There is also the threat of failure, whether real or perceived and returning home to face embarrassment of self, family, or sponsors. Finally, Wehrly (1988) states that, in addition to the pressures of failure and embarrassment, some of these individuals may experience stress because of financial responsibilities that they may not fulfill if they are not successful academically.

International Students in the United States

As the number of international students continues to grow, the United States currently leads the rest of the world in having the most students involved in international education (Arthur, 2004). Students from all over the world travel

to America annually to pursue an undergraduate or a graduate degree. The annual report published by the Institute of International Education (IIE), in November 2007, *The Open Doors* (November, 2007) reported that there were 582,984 international students – associates' level, bachelor's level, master's level and doctoral level – enrolled in colleges and universities throughout the United States during the 2006-2007 school year. This number represented 3.9 % of the total student body population, at colleges and universities throughout the country. Among this population are Caribbean overseas students, a population underrepresented in the professional literature.

Caribbean Students in the United States

As defined before, Caribbean overseas students are individuals from that region attending university or college in the United States. There are very little, if any, empirical data regarding this population in the professional literature. Therefore, information about this population is anecdotal, impressionistic, or perceptual. One popular perception is that its members bring with them a strong sense of academic self-efficacy and have a more positive experience with their cross-cultural experiences, including the acculturation process, and level of culture shock. These students are often thought to be generally successful. On the other hand, there is a body of literature about other Caribbean immigrants in the U.S., their migration patterns, their social capital manifested by the types of networks and communities that they build, as well as their levels of social

mobility. Therefore, for this study, inferences will be made from the literature about the wider Caribbean immigrant population to possibly explain the relationship between academic self-efficacy and levels of culture shock of Caribbean ISs.

In order to understand these immigrants and their migration patterns, it is important to first understand the geography and the history of the Caribbean. The geography is particularly important too because it assists in the support of the definition chosen for Caribbean and Caribbean students in this study.

Brief Geography of Caribbean

Defining the Caribbean is often fuzzy because there are many popular but varying definitions (Water, 1999). Waters (1999) stated that the academic, geographic definition of the Caribbean is the stretch of islands from the tip of Florida to the coast of South America, in the body of water called the Caribbean Sea. Richardson (1992) reported that the northernmost islands, referred to as the Greater Antilles, are the largest ones, including Cuba, Hispaniola (the island that is half Dominican Republic and half Haiti), Jamaica, and Puerto Rico. The smaller, more eastern islands are called the Lesser Antilles and include islands such as Nevis, Antigua and Barbuda, Guadeloupe, and Trinidad and Tobago. Boswell (2003), states that some, including U.S. geographers, include, in addition to the islands of the Caribbean Sea, the islands of the Bahamas and the Turks

and Caicos islands in the Atlantic Ocean; others include Belize and the South American territories of Guyana, Suriname, and French Guiana.

Elbow (1996) suggested that the best way around the problem is to view the Caribbean as three concentric zones of Caribbean identity. He proposed that the innermost zone includes the islands everyone considers to be part of the Caribbean; the middle zone comprises fringe and includes islands farther away from the core such as the Bahamas and the Turks and Caicos as well as islands located off the Caribbean coast of Central America in addition to Belize, Guyana, Suriname and French Guiana; and the periphery, the outermost zone, covers southern Mexico, including Yucatan, and all the Central American countries not included within the fringe. Based on this configuration, hundreds of other islands are technically part of the Caribbean but are politically constituent parts of Central and South American countries (Boswell, 2003).

Brief History of the Caribbean

In addition to the region's geography, it is also important to understand the general history of the region to help explain the migration patterns of Caribbean people. Most Americans have an image of the "Caribbean Islands" as either island paradises with crystal blue waters, white sandy beaches, or as Third World nations filled with shanty towns (Waters, 1999). Waters (1999) also states that these disparate associations reflect media images of the region that originated either in news reports of poverty and political upheaval or in advertisements of

inviting vacation destinations paid for or inspired by the tourist industry. Many are aware of the sometimes savage history and complex world of the Caribbean, Waters continues. The islands of the Caribbean are complex in many ways and, however, although they may vary in size, culture, and the specifics of their history, they share several commonalities in their history. Examples of this history that influence the societies and their people currently are their legacy of European colonialism, their legacy of slavery, and the domination of the island economies and cultures in recent times by the United States (Waters, 1999). These influences shape a particular Caribbean people identity and culture that immigrants bring to the United States. Historically, much of the immigration has been to New York City. Societies created on the Caribbean islands have been described as “artificial” or “manufactured”. This artificial or manufactured nature of Caribbean society is evident in the mixing of multicultural and multiethnic populations on the islands, more of whom felt that they were “from there,” (Waters, 1999). The culture of the Caribbean peoples that evolved from the mix was a transplant and syncretic one – a Creole culture in that no particular parts were indigenous, and the parts of Africa, Europe, and Asia that survived were combined and passed on from generation to generation (Lowenthal, 1972). The environment itself was transformed, and though the slaves working on the plantations grew some food, most food was imported and the slaves were dependant on supplies coming from far away (Richardson, 1992).

Brief History of Caribbean Migration

Migration became a way of life in the islands because emigration emerged as a way of dealing with limited resources, the small size of the islands, and the limited economic opportunities (Waters, 1999). For example, following the emancipation of slavery in the 1830s, there was a great deal of inter-territorial migration as former slaves sought to leave the plantations in search of more resources, (Waters, 1999). In the larger islands, like Jamaica, people were able to find land to till throughout the island and as a result, villages were formed. However, she says that in the smaller islands, such as Grenada, and St. Thomas, the only option for most emancipated individuals who wanted a better life was often migration because the available land that they may be able to work on was owned by larger plantations.

One region that saw this inter-territorial migration is Central America. Caribbean immigrants created villages and towns in the Central American countries, many of which still exist today, (Waters, 1999). A large number of workers were imported to the Panama Canal Zone between 1880 and 1914 to work on that project (Waters, 1999). This project was welcomed since it coincided with the reduction of sugar production that led to large increases in unemployment on the islands. It served as a stepping stone for migration to the US. This migration therefore became a common route for early Caribbean immigrants to the United States (Marshall, 1983). They were joined during the

early twentieth century by a wave of Caribbean immigrants coming directly from the islands who formed a large community in New York City (NYC), where they became a vibrant part of the community (Bryce-Laport, 1993). In fact, New York is one of the gateway cities in the US, and in the last few decades it has absorbed a large number of immigrants from all over the Caribbean. In addition to NYC, many other Caribbean immigrants, during that time, settled in cities like Miami and Boston (Waters, 1999).

In the 1940s and 1950s inter-island migration continued as residents of the smaller islands took work in the oil refineries of Trinidad and Curacao (Waters, 1999). The big change in the post World War II period was the shift to Europe as a destination for emigrants. Waters (1999) continues that a large number of migrants in the postwar period moved to Great Britain. This migration peaked in the two years prior the restrictive Commonwealth Immigration Act of 1962 that curtailed immigration from former colonies. Similarly, in 1965, the liberalization of American immigration laws, that had been restrictive toward the islands, along with the reduced cost and ease of travel between the U.S. and the islands, led to the migration pressure shifting toward the U.S. Since then, the volume of immigration to the US has grown enormously (Waters, 1999). The U.S., because of its proximity to the Caribbean and its growing political and economic power in the twentieth century, was a convenient destination for Caribbean people seeking a better life; this was so even though European

countries controlled most of the Caribbean islands (Waters, 1999). Immigration laws regulated the flow of people coming from the Caribbean, and changes in the laws over time created distinct waves of immigrants from that region. People in this wave to the US were on the whole a highly select group, and by all accounts these early immigrants played prominent roles in the intellectual, political, and economic leadership of their new communities (Halter, 1996).

The cultural stereotype of successful migration by Caribbean immigrants overstates many of the differences between Caribbean people and African Americans, yet, there is still evidence of an edge for Caribbean people in a few areas (Waters, 1999). They are often said to represent a “model minority”, a group which, despite their black skin and sometimes humbling backgrounds, triumphed over adversity with a strong work ethic and commitment to education (Sowell, 1978). Anecdotally, these emigrants are said to triumph in American universities and are said to have a strong sense of academic self-efficacy and experience less culture shock.

Theoretical Framework

As previously mentioned, the two theoretical frameworks to be discussed in this study are social cognitive theory, with emphasis placed on academic self-efficacy and acculturation theory, with emphasis on the culture shock component of the theory. The reasons for this is the fact that the research literature reports issues such as academic efficacy, academic and social adjustment related

stressors, language barriers, acculturation and culture shock, as well as financial concerns that affect the academic performance of ISs (Chen, 1999). In fact, Bandura (1986) wrote that emotional adaptation is aided when a person has a strong sense of self-efficacy about abilities and competence. Additionally, Maddux and Meier (1995) and Maddux (1995) stated that a strong sense of self-efficacy will also help individuals approach challenging situations without incapacitating anxiety and confusion. Therefore, it can be inferred that international students who have a strong academic self-efficacy will tend to show a better level of acculturation to their new surroundings (Senel, Consuelo, Nora, McPherson, & Pisecco, 2002).

Social Cognitive Theory

Albert Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) was born out of Social Learning Theory (SLT), which has a history in social and biological psychology, dating back to the late 1800s. SLT provided the framework needed for the development of SCT (Stone, 1998). Bandura then decided to broaden the basic tenants of SLT to include observational learning and vicarious reinforcement (Pajares, 2002). These tenants included: reinforcement, punishment, extinction, and imitation of models. With this expansion he then changed the name of the theory to social "cognitive" theory (Pajares, 2002).

Bandura based SCT on reciprocal determinism after rejecting theories that put great emphasis on the role of the environmental factors in human

development; he also frowned upon the overemphasizing of biological factors in human development (Pajares 2002). Reciprocal determinism emphasizes that personal factors, behavior, and the environment have a triadic, dynamic, and reciprocal interaction (Bandura, 1977; 1986; 1989). Stone (1998) states that this reciprocal interaction does not imply all sources of influence are equal to each other. She continues that some sources of influence are stronger than others and they do not all happen at the same time. Bandura (1989) states that interaction within the triad will differ based on the individual, the particular behaviors being examined, and the specific situation in which the behavior occurs. The theory states that an individual's behavior is uniquely determined by each of these factors (Jones, 1989) and the person-behavior interaction involves a bi-directional influence of a person's thoughts, emotions, and biological properties as well as the individual's actions (Bandura, 1977; 1986). Additionally, a bi-directional interaction also occurs between the environment and personal characteristics (Bandura, 1977; 1986). In this process, human expectation, beliefs, and cognitive competencies are developed and modified by social influences and physical structures within the environment. These social influences can carry information and activate emotional reactions through factors such as modeling, instruction, and social persuasion (Bandura, 1986). The third interaction occurs between behavior and the environment. Bandura (1977; 1986) posits that people are both products and producers of their environment. The

aspects of the environment to which an individual is exposed are determined by the individual's behavior, and the environment in turn modifies behavior.

Inherent within the concept of reciprocal determinism is the notion that people have the ability to influence their destiny while simultaneously recognizing that they are not free agents of their own will. That is, humans are neither driven by inner forces nor automatically shaped and controlled by the environment, and, as a result, humans function as contributors of their own motivation, behavior, and development within a network of reciprocally interacting influences (Bandura, 1997; Stone, 1998). Humans are characterized in terms of five basic and distinctive capabilities which include symbolization, vicarious capabilities, forethought capabilities, as well as self-regulatory and self-reflective abilities (Bandura, 1977). These capabilities provide individuals with the cognitive abilities to determine behavior.

Individuals have the ability to symbolize and these symbols provide meaning to their surroundings. Additionally, these symbols serve as the mechanism for thought and provide individual's lives with structure as information is accumulated for use in the future (Pajares, 2002). Through their vicarious capabilities, people learn new behaviors through observation of others. The observed behavior is translated into symbols for future use, allowing the individual to save time with trial and error that in turn could result in costly or fatal mistakes (Bandura & Walter, 1963; Pajares, 2002; Stone, 1998). Through

forethought, individuals can motivate themselves and guide their future actions anticipatorily (Bandura, 1986). This observational learning is governed by attention span, retention process, motor reproduction processes, and motivational processes (Bandura, 1977; 1986). Attention span refers to a person's ability to selectively observe actions and behavior in the environment. Individuals then retain the observed actions in order to replicate them in the future; again, this replication is possible because individuals are capable of symbolizing. Once these symbols are formed and committed to memory, they must be converted into appropriate action for modeling to take place. This is called motor reproduction processes. Additionally, the degree to which a behavior is seen to result in a valued outcome will influence the likelihood that one will adopt a modeled behavior (Bandura, 1989; Stone, 1998).

Bandura (1989) proposes that self-regulatory systems mediate external influences and provide a basis for purposeful action, allowing people to have personal control over their own thoughts, feelings, motivation, and actions. These mechanisms occur as individuals self-monitor and self-observe in order to make decisions about actions and choices they have made (Pajares, 2002). Self-regulation is important because it allows a gradual substitution of internal controls for external controls of behavior (Stone, 1998).

The final capability is referred to as self reflection which enables people to analyze their experiences and think about their own thought processes and

thinking. It is the path through which individuals make sense of their experiences, explore their own cognitions and self-beliefs, participate in self-evaluation, and change their behavior and thinking accordingly (Pajares, 2002).

Self-Efficacy

One of the most important types of self reflection is what Bandura (1986) refers to as standing at the very core of social cognitive theory, self-efficacy (Stone, 1998). Self-efficacy provides explicit guidelines on how to enable people to exercise some influence over their lives (Bandura, 1997). It acknowledges the diversity of human capabilities, hence treating the efficacy belief system as a distinguishable set of self-beliefs, all linked to distinct realms of functioning (Bandura, 1997). According to Bandura (1997), self-efficacy beliefs refer to “people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances (p. 11).” He purports that self-belief is more important than what is actually factual. He suggests that self-belief is more important because “motivation, affective state, and actions are based more on what they believe than what is objectively true” (Bandura, 1997, p. 2). He also says that these beliefs establish how people feel, think, motivate themselves and behave through four major processes: cognitive, motivational, affective, and selection processes (Bandura, 1994).

Bandura (1997) states that perceived self-efficacy is not a measure of skill. It is the belief an individual has about what he or she can do in different

conditions with whatever skills the individual has. Bandura (1994) stated that people who demonstrate a strong sense of efficacy enhance their accomplishments and personal well-being. These individuals, possessing high assurance in their capabilities, approach difficult tasks as challenges to be conquered and not to be avoided. Additionally, these individuals recover quickly from any adversity or setbacks. On the other hand, individuals who doubt their capabilities shy away from difficult tasks which they view as personal threats. They have low aspirations and weak commitment to the goals they have chose to pursue. They dwell on personal deficiencies, obstacles they may encounter, and other potentially adverse outcomes instead of concentrating on performing successfully. These individuals reduce their efforts and readily give up in at the sight of difficulty. Additionally, it is difficult for them to recover their sense of efficacy after failure or setbacks (Bandura, 1994, 1997).

Beliefs people have about their efficacy are constructed from four main sources of information: “1) enactive mastery experiences that serve as indicators of capability; 2) vicarious experiences that alter efficacy beliefs through transmission of competencies and comparison with attainment of others; 3) verbal persuasion and allied types of social influences that one possesses certain capabilities; and 4) physiological and affective states from which people partly judge their capabilities, strengths, and vulnerability to dysfunction” Bandua, (1997, p. 78). Information that is relevant for judging personal capabilities is not

by itself enlightening; it is only informative through cognitive processing of efficacy information and through reflective thought (Bandura, 1997). He believes that, therefore, a distinction must be drawn between information conveyed by experienced events and information as selected, weighted, and integrated into self-efficacy judgment (Pajares, 2002). Additionally, cognitive processing of efficacy information involves two separable functions. The first function relates to the type of information people pay attention to and use as indicators of their personal efficacy, and each of the four modes of giving information about personal abilities has a distinctive set of efficacy indicators. The second function relates to the combination of rules that people use to weigh and integrate efficacy information from different sources in constructing their efficacy beliefs.

Mastery experiences are the most influential source of efficacy information; these masteries are most influential because these provide the most indisputable evidence of whether or not an individual can generate what is needed to succeed. Successes build a strong belief in personal efficacy (Bandura, 1994). The second way of creating and strengthening personal efficacy beliefs is through vicarious experiences that are provided by social models. Vicarious experiences occur by observing people similar to oneself who succeed by sustained effort. The process influences the observer's beliefs that he or she also possesses the ability to master comparable activities to succeed. Similarly, observing others fail, despite high effort, lowers the observers'

judgment of their own efficacy and undermines their efforts (Bandura, 1994; 1997).

Social persuasion is the third source of strengthening self-efficacy. Bandura (1994) believes that people who are persuaded verbally are capable of performing a given activity and are more likely to give greater effort and sustain it. This persuasive boost in perceived self-efficacy leads people to try harder in an attempt to succeed.

Through physiological and affective states, the fourth source, people also rely partly on their somatic and emotional states in judging their capabilities. They interpret their stress reactions and tension as indicative of vulnerability to poor performance. Moods also affect their judgment of their efficacy; positive mood enhances efficacy beliefs and dejected moods diminish it (Bandura, 1994, 1997; Pajares, 2002). The intensity of emotion as well as the perceived source of the emotional or physical state will affect the efficacy beliefs of a task to be completed (Bandura, 1997).

Academic Self-Efficacy

Efficacy beliefs play an influential motivational part in academic attainment (Bandura, 1997). Academic self-efficacy refers to students' confidence in their ability to carry out academic tasks such as preparing for exams and writing term papers (Zajacova, Lynch, & Espenshade, 2005). Throughout the professional literature, it has been consistently shown to predict grades and persistence in

college (Bandura, 1987; Owen, 1988; Lane & Lane, 2001; Poyrazli, Arbona, Nora, McPherson, & Pisecco, 2002). Bandura (1993) posits that self-efficacy beliefs affect college outcome by increasing students' motivation and persistence to master challenging academic tasks and by fostering the efficient use of acquired knowledge and skills. In fact, efficacy beliefs are thought to be so important to academics that Bandura (1997) stated, "Perceived self-efficacy is a better predictor of intellectual performance than skills alone" (p.216). Moreover, academic self-efficacy has also been linked to important non-academic variables such as depression and pro-social behavior (Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara, & Pastorelli, 1996).

Academic efficacy has been linked to adjustment related stressors (academic and social) including acculturation and culture shock (Chen, 1999). These stressors can affect a student's academic efficacy beliefs and vice versa. Bandura (1986) says that emotional adaptation is aided when a person has a strong sense of self-efficacy about abilities and competence. Additionally, Maddux and Meier (1995) and Maddux (1995) stated that a strong sense of self-efficacy will also help individuals approach challenging situations without incapacitating anxiety and confusion. Therefore, it can be inferred that ISs, including Caribbean students, who have a strong academic self-efficacy will tend to show a better level of acculturation (Senel, Consuelo, Nora, McPherson, & Pisecco, 2002).

Acculturation Theory

The conception of acculturation dates back to 1880, originating in anthropology (Berry, 1980). Since then, various models as well as definitions of the concept have been introduced throughout the literature. Redfield, Linton, and Herskovits (1936) established one of the classical definitions as, “encompassing changes in original cultural patterns that occur as a result of ongoing contact among groups of individuals with different cultures (Chun, Balls-Organista, & Marin, 2003, p. xxiii).” In 1954, the Social Science Research Council (SSRC) proposed an expanded definition by stating that acculturation is the amalgamation of two or more independent cultural systems, leading to dynamic processes that include adaptation of value systems and transformation within relationships and personality traits (Chun et al., 2003, p. xxiii). This suggests that assimilation is not necessarily the only outcome possible when cultures interact, and acculturation is a selective process that may cause changes in one area of human behavior but not another (Trimble, 2003). Berry (1980) states that based on the statements of Redfield et al. (1936) and the SSRC (1954) it is possible to derive features and dimensions of acculturation theory. He listed these features as (a) the basic nature of acculturation, (b) the characteristic course of acculturation, (c) the level at which acculturation takes place, and (d) issues of measurement. Berry (1980) wrote that the development and expansion of these features were not meant to encompass worldwide features of

acculturation, but rather to focus on the impact of dominant, contemporary societies in North America upon native peoples and ethnic groups. Appropriately international students in the United States would be included.

Berry (1980) wrote that for acculturation to occur in the natural dimension, the contact of at least two independent cultural groups is required; there must also be change in one group or the other as a result of that contact. He stated that, although both groups change as a result of the contact, one group will be more dominant, contributing more to the flow of the cultural elements. This contact may be difficult and conflictual rather than a smooth transition. Berry (1980) also stated that assimilation is not necessarily the eventual form of accommodation between the groups in contact and in conflict, as previously purported. It is actually adaptation to reduce the conflict within the interacting system.

Continuing to build on the previous definitions provided by Redfield et al. (1936) and the SSRC (1954), Berry (1980) proposed what he refers to as a three-phase course to acculturation: contact (phase one), conflict (phase two), and adaptation (phase three). The first phase is necessary, the second is probable, and some form of the third is unavoidable. According to Berry (1980), contact between two groups is at the center of acculturation because without contact, there would be no acculturation. This contact may come about through country invasions, educational activity, and or trade as well as other forms of

contacts. Berry (1980) stated that accidental contact or short lived contact usually yields the least acculturation. On the other hand, the greatest acculturation takes place when the contact is as a result of deliberate takeover of a society or of its skills and beliefs over an extended period of time. Unlike the contact phase, the conflict phase is not necessary for acculturation but probable. The conflict phase would occur if there is resistance to giving up original cultural values to accept the values of the dominant culture. Berry (1980) continues by stating that adaptation serves as a way to decrease or stabilize conflict. Of the three phases, Berry focused most of his writing on the adaptation phase.

Acculturation could be treated as a two-level phenomenon. Berry (1980) wrote that because acculturation not only affects individuals it also affects cultural groups; therefore, the three-phase course (contact, conflict, and adaptation) is applicable to both individuals and cultural groups. Originally, acculturation was proposed as a group-level phenomenon; however, it is now also widely recognized as an individual-level phenomenon Berry (1991). He continued that the process of cultural contact is taking place and is continuing at a rapid rate. Therefore, both individuals and groups must deal with this process in all of its dimensions: political, economic, cultural, social, and psychological.

Carrying out independent measurement of the three phases at both the individual and group levels is one way to measure acculturation (Berry, 1980). It is further stated that studies at the group level should investigate the history,

persistence, and purpose of the cultural contact, the nature of the group conflict, and the adaptations achieved by both groups. Additionally, studies should look at the individual's exposure to the other culture, the interpersonal and intrapersonal conflicts and crises experienced, and the personal adaptations made to the situation.

As mentioned previously, Berry focused most of his writing on the adaptation phase of acculturation; he purported that it is a useful concept when addressing acculturation (Berry, 1976). Berry (1991) posits that there are different strategies of adaptation which will lead to different varieties of adaptation. He identified three strategies for individuals: adjustment, reaction, and withdrawal (Berry, 1976; 1991). With adjustment, there are changes in the individual that are directed toward reducing conflict with the environment, attempting to bring harmony between the two. With reaction, changes are made in retaliation to the environment. These changes may cause the fit between the individual and his or her environment to increase; however, not as a result of cultural or behavioral adjustment. With withdrawal, change is in the direction of reducing the pressures of the environment; it is the individual's removal from the adaptive environment either by forced exclusion or voluntarily (Berry, 1991). Berry (1991) continued by stating that the withdrawal strategy is seldom a possibility for those being influenced by larger and more powerful cultural systems.

Berry (1980) introduced a framework of acculturation adaptation. The model was based on the observation that in culturally plural societies, individuals and groups must confront two important issues: the maintenance and distinctiveness in society, deciding whether original values and culture should be retained and the desirability for interethnic contact, deciding whether relations with the larger society are of value and should be sought.

These are issues regarding attitude and values and may be addressed on a continuum from positive to negative and can be conceptualized as dichotomous (Berry, 1991). Based on this possible continuum, Berry (1991) produced a fourfold model. In this model, there are four classifications that are considered to be acculturation options available to individuals and groups in pluralistic societies. These options are assimilation, integration, separation, and marginalization. It is important to note that when this framework was previously introduced by Berry in 1980 the terms rejection and deculturation were used to refer to what Berry (1991) called separation and marginalization respectively. However, he does not give an explanation for the changes.

Assimilation is defined as relinquishing one's cultural identity and moving into a larger society. Integration suggests that some maintenance of the cultural integrity of the group as well as the movement to become an essential part of a larger society. Berry (1991) continued that when no significant relationship with the larger society is coupled with the maintenance of ethnic identity and

traditions, the result could manifest as the third option, segregation or separation. Segregation he states, when dictated by the dominant group, is designed to keep people in their place. On the other hand, separation takes place when the less dominant group chooses to maintain traditional ways of life outside full participation in the larger society. Berry (1991) stated that the fourth option is difficult to define. This difficulty is probably because it goes with collective and individual confusion and stress. It is characterized as lashing out against the larger society and by feelings of alienation, loss of identity, and what Berry (1974; 1980; 1991) refers to as acculturative stress. With marginalization as an option, groups lose cultural and psychological contact with their traditional culture and the larger society.

Additionally, as mentioned earlier, Berry, Kim and Mok (1987) proposed five stages of acculturation:

1. *Physical changes*. The individual must cope with living in a new place, including such elements as increased population density and more pollution.
2. *Biological changes*. The individual encounters, for example, a new nutritional status and new diseases.
3. *Cultural changes*. Political, economic, technical, linguistic, religion, and social institutions become altered, or new ones take their place.

4. *New set of social relationships.* The individual must function within new social networks, both in-group and out-group.
5. *Psychological and behavioral changes.* An alteration in mental health status resulting from culture shock almost always occurs in some form or the other as an individual attempts to adapt to their milieu.”

However, although all of the components in the five stages are important, for the purpose of this study, only the concept of culture shock, in stage five, will be expounded upon.

Culture Shock

There have been several definitions and explanations in the professional literature for culture shock, starting with Oberg (1954), who is said to have coined the term. Oberg (1972) proposed a five-stage model to represent culture shock, relating to immigrants: “(1) the immigrants feel euphoria about the exciting new culture, (2) failure to succeed leads to extreme dissatisfaction with the host culture. This is period of psychological transition from back-home values to host-home values, (3) persons begin to understand the host culture and feel more in touch with themselves, (4) the host culture is viewed as offering both positive and negative alternatives, and (5) the immigrants return home and experience reverse culture shock (Gopaul-McNicol, 1993, pp. 16-17).” Oberg (1972) stated that culture shock is a pervasive disorientation that does not strike suddenly, but rather, is cumulative, building up slowly from a sequence of small events that are

hard to identify. Furnham & Bochner (1986) suggest that culture shock entails (a) grief and bereavement, (b) external locus of control, (c) selective migration, (d) migrant expectations, (e) life-events and illness, (f) social support, (g) value difference, and (h) social skills to be the justification for culture shock.

Pedersen (1995) stated that culture shock can be characterized as both a process within cross-cultural transition and as a syndrome of stress. It can be deemed as subjective and as an internal experience that represents the process of initial adjustment to unfamiliar events and unexpected circumstances.

Additionally, Pedersen (1995) stated that culture shock “(1) is a process and not a single event, (2) may take place at many different levels simultaneously as the individual interacts with a complex environment, (3) becomes stronger or weaker as the individual learns to cope or fails to cope, (4) teaches the individual new coping strategies which contribute to future success, and (5) applies to any radical change presenting unfamiliar or unexpected circumstances. Situations of culture shock abroad provide metaphors for better understanding culture shock related to physical health, environmental disaster, economic failure, psychological crises, or any radical change in lifestyle” (p. vii). Pedersen (1995) also provides, several potential explanations for culture shock: (a) culture shock as the consequence of a encounter to a new environment or situation, (b) as caused by ineffectiveness of intercultural or interpersonal communication, (c) as a threat to the emotional well-being of the sojourner, (d) as inappropriate

behaviors that are caused by needs and wants, and (e) as a growth and learning experience. Sometime later, Ward, Bochner, and Furnham (2001) stated that culture shock is the period of adjustment between home and host cultures.

It is important to note that although coming from differing theoretical origin their explanations do not stand alone and they each have their own limitations. Components of each can be used to further explain the adjustment of an immigrant in a new environment, including international students.

Summary

There is a dearth of literature about Caribbean international college students, creating potential challenges for counselors who are in contact with these students. Academic self-efficacy and acculturation (culture shock) constructs seem to be important concepts to investigate about the target population because these are two concepts that are often discussed among Caribbean people – immigrants, international students, family and friends still in the Caribbean – regarding the performance of Caribbean college students. Yet, there is very little if any documentation about either. It is important to go one step beyond anecdotes because if that is not done, there is the potential that the needs of this population can go unnoticed and in turn not served. Therefore, the goal of the current study will be to explore if in fact there is a relationship between academic self-efficacy and culture shock, and to explore the most

common factors influencing academic self-efficacy and culture shock as perceived by the participants.

CHAPTER THREE

METHOD

Participants

The participants for the study were overseas Caribbean students attending various universities in the United States. The participants were required to have grown up in the Caribbean and included students who were born in the US but grew up on one of the islands, including the US Virgin Islands and Puerto Rico. They were from the following countries: Antigua and Barbuda, the Bahamas, Barbados, Dominica, Grenada, Guyana, Jamaica, Kenya, Nevis, Puerto Rico, Trinidad and Tobago, St. Kitts and Nevis, St. Lucia, and the United States Virgin Islands.

The participants were part of a convenience sample. Some were chosen because they were known to the researcher; some through referrals from others who knew the potential participants; some were contacted either through the presidents or public relations officers of university Caribbean Student's Associations. The presidents or public relations officers were sent a copy of the informed consent e-mail, which included the link to the survey website and were asked to forward the e-mail to members of their association. Facebook.com and google.com were also used to recruit participants. Participants attended: Bethune-Cookman University, Columbia University, Dartmouth College, Drexel University, Duke University, Georgia Southern University, Georgia State

University, Hocking College, Indiana State University, Ithaca College, Johns Hopkins, Miami Dade College, Michigan State University, Midwestern State University, Monroe College, Montgomery College, New School University, North Carolina State University, The University of North Carolina at Charlotte, Stanford University, Texas A&M, Washington State University, and Western Michigan University.

The following documents were received, reviewed, and completed by the participants: (a) an e-mail consent form (see Appendix A), (b) a demographic form (see Appendix B), (c) *College Academic Self-Efficacy Scale (CASES)* (Owen's (1988); see Appendix C), and (d) the Culture Shock Questionnaire (Mumford, 1998; see Appendix D).

Instrumentation

Demographic Questionnaire

A demographic questionnaire was designed for the purpose of this study. Participants provided information about the following: gender, age, resident status (student visa, green card, or citizen), educational level, major, island of origin and island grew up on, name of university and its location, degree seeking and major, if had relatives who attended university prior the participant, length of time in the United States, and if lived elsewhere prior to moving to the US. Additionally, participants were asked to answer two qualitative questions

regarding their academic self-efficacy and culture shock (see Appendix B). This information was used as part of the data analysis.

College Academic Self-Efficacy Scale (CASES)

Owen's and Froman (1988) College Academic Self-Efficacy Scale (CASES) consists of 33 Likert-type questions with five possible answers, each ranging from *quite a lot* (5 points) to *very little* (1 point) an example question is, "taking well organized notes" (Choi, 2005). It is a self-report measure of academic self-efficacy designed to measure the degree of confidence of performing typical academic behaviors of college students (Choi, 2005). For reliability estimation, the scale was administered twice over an eight-week period to a different group other than the initial group (Owen & Froman, 1988). They reported an alpha coefficient of .90 and a test-retest reliability of .85 within an 8-week interval. Choi (2005) in her study using the CASES reported an alpha coefficient of .92.

Owen and Froman (1988) tested concurrent and factorial validities. Concurrent validities were estimated using two different criteria: frequency of performing each task and enjoyment of each task and were arranged in incremental validity research (Owen & Froman, 1988). The two samples were then combined, yielding an increase in R from .62 to .81. To study factorial validity, responses from three samples were combined and an exploratory principal factor analysis was performed. Owen and Froman (1988) reported that,

“three factors with eigenvalues above 1.0 explained 78% of the systemic item variance” (p. 5).

In his letter giving consent for the instrument to be use, Owen stated that items are scored as A (“quite a lot”) = 5...E (“very little”) = 1. He also stated that “because we read from right to left, data entry is faster letting A = 1, and E = 5.” He suggested that if data are entered with A = 1, let the computer recode the values so that A becomes 5, B becomes 4, etc. Owen continued that in calculating an overall CASES score, it is preferred that the mean be calculated rather than a sum. He stated that there were two reasons to prefer a mean score, averaging across the items: (1) to compensate for missing data; and (2) it puts the overall score in the same metric as the original response scale, usually 1-5. He also stated that on a 33-item scale, if someone who skipped two items has a mean calculated on 31 items, and there is no penalty for missing data.

Culture Shock Questionnaire (CSQ)

Mumford’s (1998) *Culture Shock Questionnaire* (CSQ) is comprised of 12 Likert-type questions with three possible answers each. There were seven “core” culture shock items, and five interpersonal stress items. The “core” items of the questionnaire were derived directly from Taff’s (1977) six distinct aspects of culture shock which are: “(a) strain due to the effort required to make necessary psychological adaptation, (b) a sense of loss and feelings of deprivation in regard to friends, status, profession and possession, (c) being rejected by and/or

rejecting members of the new culture, (d) confusions in role, role expectations, values, feelings and self-identity, (e) surprise, anxiety, even disgust and indignation after becoming aware of cultural differences, (f) feeling of impotence due to not being able to cope with the new environment.” These statements were redrafted in the form of questions; the third aspect (rejection by and/or of members of new culture was split into two separate questions.

Mumford (1998) stated that the reliability analysis on the seven core culture shock items yielded Cronbach’s coefficient of .75 and the five interpersonal stress items yielded a coefficient of .53. The Cronbach’s Alpha for the 12 items on the questionnaire yielded a coefficient of .79. Each of the 12 items on the CSQ is scored 2, 1, or 0 (in descending severity) for an overall culture shock score ranging from 0-24. Higher scores meant higher levels of culture shock. In addition, Mumford (1998) states that to measure external validity, participants (British volunteers travelling throughout the world), $N = 380$, of the pilot study were grouped according to country of destination, or by geographical regions (e.g. South America, Eastern Europe). The purpose of the study was to investigate the factors and circumstances that exacerbate culture shock among the volunteers.

Procedure

Data Collection

Participants. Participants were recruited through the Caribbean students associations, facebook.com, and google.com searches. They were chosen from several universities throughout the US. The researcher contacted Caribbean students she already knew, to request the name of the president of the organization. Based on this information, the presidents or public relations officers were contacted via e-mail or by telephone and were asked to forward the survey link to their constituents. The intent for this procedure was to help protect the privacy of the participants who may not have wanted their email addresses made public. Through google.com searches a list of Caribbean students' associations was discovered. This list was used to compile an e-mailing list of Caribbean students associations contact information. Based on this process, e-mails were sent to the contact people, and they were asked to forward the information. In some cases, because the e-mail addresses of members were public, e-mails were sent directly to the individuals. Participants were also recruited through referral from individuals who knew Caribbean students who may not have been on a listserv or part of an organization. Participants or others making the referral of potential participants were sent a copy of the study e-mail and were asked to forward the e-mail to the individuals they were referring. One week after the initial e-mail was sent, a follow up e-mail was sent to participants

as a reminder. The second e-mail request contained the same basic information as the initial e-mail. Additionally, e-mails were continuously sent as the researcher became aware of potential participants.

Study Survey. A survey which combined the demographic questionnaire and the two instruments being used was designed online, using the tools on surveyMonkey.com. The instrument was divided into two sections in addition to the demographic survey; the first section reflected the 33 Likert-type questions of the *CASES* while section two was compiled using the 12 item *CSQ*. Through the website, students were asked to read an informed consent statement and to decide if they wanted to complete the survey. If they were willing to participate, they were asked to complete the following: (a) a demographic form, (b) *the College Academic Self-Efficacy Scale*, (Owen & Froman, 1988), and (c) the *Culture Shock Questionnaire* (Mumford, 1998).

The assessment questions had minimal psychological risks for the participants and the information received was treated as confidential. Participants did not receive incentives for their participation. SurveyMonkey.com provided the following, "We employ multiple layers of security to make sure that your account and your data remains private and secure. We employ a third-party firm to conduct daily audits of our security, and your data resides behind the *latest in firewall and intrusion prevention* technology. (http://www.surveymonkey.com/Home_Landing.aspx)".

Pre-Data Analysis

Prior to the data analysis of the research questions, some steps were taken to ensure accurate analysis.

1. As suggested by Owen in his permission letter the researcher, the responses for each question on the CASES were entered into the survey in reverse order. He stated that “because we read from right to left, data entry is faster letting A = 1, and E = 5.” He stated that, “if data are entered with A = 1, let the computer recode the values so that A becomes 5, B becomes 4, etc.” The same principle was used for this study except the numbers were entered in ascending order with five being the lowest score and one being the highest. Therefore, a reverse order formula (original value + 1 - cell value), was employed to recode the values.
2. The total possible scores for both the *Culture Shock Questionnaire*, (Mumford, 1998) and the *College Academic Self-Efficacy Scale*, (Owen & Froman, 1988) were calculated. The highest score that could have been received for the CASES was 165 and the highest possible score on the CSQ was 36. Mumford (1998) suggested that the highest score on the CSQ should be 24. However, for this study, the response values were changed for statistical analysis purposes. Therefore, zero, one, and two on the original scoring of the CSQ, were changed to one, two, and three respectively for this study. This changed the possible range of scores

from 0-24 to 12-36, with 12 representing zero and 36 representing 24. These changes affected the interpretation of the analysis of the data and were taken into consideration. For example, the overall mean score in this study was 27. This value would be the equivalent to a mean score of 15 using Munford's (1998) range of scores. Similarly, this conversion affected the average score for each question per person, across all the participants. In this study, this value was 2.31 and would be the equivalent of about 1.15 using Munford's method of scoring. Furthermore, the overall median and range for the current study were both 28, and would be equivalent to a median and range of 15 using Munford's scoring scale. The lowest and the highest overall mean scores for this study were 25 and 30 respectively. These scores would correspond with 13 and 18 respectively, on Munford's rating scale. The scoring range used in this study was used to report the results in chapter four.

After organizing the collected data, the responses of all 72 participants were used for the analysis of the demographic survey. All of the responses were used because the researcher wanted to be able to paint a comprehensive picture of all the individuals who attempted the survey. However, for the quantitative analysis, 10 of the participants were deemed invalid, leaving 62 participants. These individuals' responses were invalid based on the stipulations, for analysis of the quantitative data. To be considered to be a participant in the quantitative

analysis, participants had to complete both the CASES and the CSQ; furthermore, participants had to have grown up in the Caribbean to have been considered. Using this criterion, nine of the participants were discarded because they did not complete either the CASES or the CSQ; one was discarded because s/he did not grow up in the Caribbean. For the qualitative analysis, the responses of the 72 participants who attempted the survey, including the 10 that were discarded from the quantitative analysis, were used. The responses were all used because they were downloaded as a whole data set instead of individual responses.

Data Analysis

The following procedures were used to analyze the data for each of the questions accordingly:

For research question one, *what is the relationship between academic self-efficacy and culture shock in the sample?*, a Pearson Product Moment Correlation was calculated to assess whether or not there is a relationship between the two variables. The correlation coefficient was squared in order to determine the strength of the relationship. The Pearson's correlation reflected the degree of linear relationship between academic self-efficacy and culture shock. The results ranged from 0 to ± 1.00 with + 1 indicating a perfect positive linear relationship between the variables.

For research question two, *what is an emerging academic self-efficacy profile of the sample?* A descriptive statistical analysis of the College Questionnaire data was conducted and a frequency distribution is presented. Special attention was given to the range and average of the academic self-efficacy score. Additionally, a multiple regression analysis was conducted to assess whether or not each explanatory variable had a significant effect on the academic self-efficacy of students.

For research question three, *what is an emerging culture shock profile of the sample?* A descriptive statistical analysis was conducted and a frequency distribution is presented. Special attention was given to the range and average of the acculturation scores. Additionally, a multiple regression analysis was conducted to assess whether or not each explanatory variable had a significant effect on the symptoms of culture shock of students.

For research question four, *what are the most common factors influencing academic self-efficacy according to the participants?*, and for question research five, *what are the most common factors influencing culture shock according to the participants?*, the data were analyzed qualitatively. These data were collected as part of the demographic survey. Participants were given working definitions for academic self-efficacy and for symptoms of culture shock. They were asked to answer the following question: (1) what are some factors that you believe influenced your academic self-efficacy here in the U.S.?, and (2) Do you

think you have experienced culture shock here in the US? Briefly explain your answer whether YES or NO. If so, what are some factors that you believe influenced your culture shock in the United States?

It is well documented throughout the professional literature that the tenants of the grounded theory are usually used when little is known about a phenomenon (Morse & Field, 1995). Additionally, the goal of the grounded theory approach is to understand the participants within their cultural context (Silverman, 2000). Therefore, since the intent of this study was to establish a relationship between the academic self-efficacy and culture shock among Caribbean overseas college students attending universities in the United States, this approach was deemed to be the most appropriate. The grounded theory approach was especially apt since neither the academic self-efficacy nor the levels of culture shock have been examined in empirical studies.

For the current study, a modified grounded theory approach was utilized to analyze the data. The approach was labeled modified because the researcher did not employ all components of a grounded theoretical approach. A grounded theory approach seeks to study phenomenon that have not yet been examined (Stern, 1994). According to Glaser and Strauss (1967) one goal of a grounded theory is to formulate hypotheses based on conceptual ideas. Another stated goal of a grounded theory is to discover the participants' main concern and how they continually try to resolve it. They also stated that the questions that an

investigator should keep asking in grounded theory are "what is going on?" and "what is the main problem of the participants and how are they trying to solve it?" Based on these postulations, as stated before, the approach used to analyze the data in this study was a modified grounded theory approach. One modification for the study was that only the participants' main concerns – factors that influenced academic self-efficacy and their levels of culture shock – were sought. They were not asked to report how they solved their issues of academic self-efficacy and culture shock.

Validity in its traditional sense is not an issue in grounded theory, which instead should be judged by fit, relevance, workability, and modifiability (Glaser & Strauss 1967; Glaser 1978; Glaser 1998). Fit refers to how closely concepts match the incidents they are representing. Relevance of a study refers to the real concern of participants, captures the attention, and is not only of academic interest. Workability refers to when the grounded theory explains how the problem is being solved with much variation while modifiability refers to when a theory can be altered when new relevant data is compared to existing data (Glaser 1978; Glaser 1998). Based on these definitions another grounded theory modification used in the current study included the fact that workability was not utilized. The study did not seek to explain how the participants solved their problems of academic self-efficacy or their levels of culture shock but rather it sought to discover factors that influenced their academic self-efficacy and culture

shock. Another modification was that modifiability was not utilized since there were no existing data to compare the current data to.

Finally, an additional modification to the grounded theory in the current study was that the intent was not to generate a theory about Caribbean overseas students and relationship between their academic efficacy and culture shock. Rather, the intent was to gather preliminary data about their perceptions of factors that affected their academic self-efficacy and their culture shock.

No statistical software designed to analyze qualitative data was used. Coding and a thematic analysis of the data were conducted. Codes or categories are tags or labels for allocating units of meaning to the descriptive or inferential information compiled during a study. They usually are attached to words, phrases, sentences or whole paragraphs, connected or unconnected to a specific setting (Basit, 2003). Themes are recurrent patterns in the data that represent a concept (Heppner, Kivlighan, & Wampold, 1999).

To code the data and to identify common themes, the researcher downloaded the data from [surveymonkey.com](https://www.surveymonkey.com), an online service for survey development and administration, and converted them to a Microsoft word document for analysis. The constant comparative method was then employed to analyze the data. Glaser and Strauss (1967) stated that using the constant comparative method, the researcher simultaneously codes and analyzes data; the researcher refines these concepts, identifies their properties, explores their

relationships to one another, and integrates a coherent. Using this method, the researcher coded the participants' responses on the survey. This method was employed to code and to sort the data in order to be able to analyze all data relevant to a theme, concept, or proposal together. Once the codes were sought, the codes were combined to create themes which were presented in chapter four.

After the data analysis was completed, to help increase the soundness of the data, an auditor reviewed the researcher's codes and themes to ensure fit, relevance, workability, and modifiability (Glaser & Strauss 1967; Glaser 1978; Glaser 1998). The auditor was chosen because of her prior experience using qualitative data analysis, while completing her dissertation in anthropology in 2003, at a university in North Carolina public university system. She was also chosen conveniently, since she was a former classmate of the researcher. She was African American from a rural town in North Carolina and was not directly involved with participants or with the study. However, the auditor was not specifically trained for the current study but was given the background for the study and data collection method.

The researcher and the auditor discussed what needed to be accomplished through the auditing process. Based on this dialogue it was agreed upon that the auditor would audit the qualitative questions of the study as a colleague, with no monetary compensation. The auditor would treat the data

as confidential and they would be kept in a locked filing cabinet in her office at the non-profit organization where she worked. She would, at her request, have two weeks to complete the audit. The researcher would provide a copy of the methodology chapter (chapter three) to the auditor and the auditor in turn would use that chapter to get a better understanding of the study and the methods used by the researcher to analyze the data. Additionally, the auditor would receive the raw data as well as the researcher's analysis of the data, including the coding and the major categories of themes the researcher discussed in her analysis. After the auditor's analysis, the researcher and the auditor discussed the auditor's analysis of the data and her recommendations. This discussion assisted the two in generating the final major categories based on the codes. These categories included the emerging themes that both the researcher and the auditor thought would aptly represent the data. These categories and the emerging themes were reported in chapter four and discussed in chapter five.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

This chapter includes results of the data analytic procedures. First, demographic statistics for the participants are presented. Secondly, results for each of the five research questions are reported, including the themes gathered from the qualitative data for questions four and five. Tables are utilized to summarize the descriptive statistics and significant findings of the data.

The following functional and statistical multi-step data analysis procedure was conducted: the data were organized, the two inventories used were scored, the incomplete and invalid data were eliminated, and the descriptive statistics summaries were compiled performed a correlation analysis and qualitative data were analyzed using a modified grounded theory, thematic analysis approach.

Demographic Statistics

For the demographic statistics, the data collected about the initial 72 Caribbean overseas students in the study were analyzed. This sample included 44 women and 28 men (61.1% women and 38.9% men), with ages varying from 18 to 41. Participants were Caribbean overseas undergraduate (Bachelor's and Associate's), master's, or doctoral students, enrolled in colleges or universities throughout the US. These students came from various countries throughout the Caribbean region. Some of these islands were Aruba, Jamaica, and St. Kitts and Nevis, one of the twin island nations.

Table 1

Demographic Variables

Variables	N	%
Gender		
Female	44	61.10%
Male	28	38.90%
Age		
18-20	9	12.50%
21-25	40	55.60%
26-30	16	22.20%
31-35	4	5.60%
36-41	3	4.20%
42+	0	0%
Student Visa		
Yes	55	76.40%
No	17	23.60%
Visa/Residency Status		
F-1 Student Visa	40	55.00%
J-1 student Visa	5	6.94%
H1-B student Visa	2	2.77%
Permanent Resident	4	5.55%
United States Citizen	8	11.10%

Table 1 (continued).

Variables	N	%
Unspecified Student Visa	2	2.77%
Not Applicable	1	1.38%
Unanswered	10	13.80%
Country of Origin		
Anguilla	1	1.39%
Antigua and Barbuda	10	13.89%
Aruba	1	1.39%
Bahamas	2	2.78%
Barbados	2	2.78%
Dominica	6	8.33%
Grenada	11	15.28%
Guyana	3	4.17%
Jamaica	6	8.33%
Kenya	1	1.39%
Puerto Rico	1	1.39%
St. Kitts and Nevis	6	8.33%
St. Thomas, United States Virgin Islands	2	2.78%
Trinidad and Tobago	6	8.33%
United States of America	1	1.39%

Table 1 (continued).

Variables	N	%
United States Virgin Islands Unspecified	5	8.33%
Unanswered	8	11.11%
Country grew up		
Antigua and Barbuda	15	20.83%
Aruba	1	1.38%
Bahamas	2	2.77%
Barbados	2	2.77%
Dominica	6	8.33%
Grenada	13	18.05%
Jamaica	7	9.72%
Montserrat	1	9.72%
St. Kitts and Nevis	6	8.33%
St. Lucia	1	1.38%
Trinidad and Tobago	5	6.94%
The United States	2	2.77%
United States Virgin Islands (St. Thomas, St. Croix)	6	8.33%
Unanswered	2	2.77%

Table 1 (continued).

Variables	N	%
Lived Elsewhere (other than country of origin) Before Moving to the United States		
Yes	11	15.27%
No	59	81.94%
Unanswered	2	2.77%
Country of origin	Other countries lived	
Anguilla	Antigua	
Antigua	Barbados	
Grenada	Jamaica	
Guyana	Jamaica	
Kenya	Nevis	
Puerto Rico	Dominican Republic	
	Spain	
St. Kitts	Antigua	
St. Lucia	London	
	Barbados	
Trinidad and Tobago	England	

Table 1 (continued).

Variables	N	%
Visited the US at least Once per Year Prior to Coming to College		
Yes	33	45.83%
No	37	51.38%
Visited Other Countries (other than the US) Prior to College		
Yes	44	61.11%
No	24	33.33%
Moving to the US Immediately after High School or A-Levels		
Yes	21	29.16%
No	47	65.27%
Work Full Time or Part Time Prior to Coming to the US for College or University		
Yes	48	66.66%
No	21	29.16%
Unanswered	3	4.16%
Student who had Close Relative Attend College Prior to Student		
Yes	53	73.61%
No	17	23.61%

Table 1 (continued).

Variables	N	%
Country Where Relatives Attended College		
Barbados	4	5.56%
Dominican Republic	1	1.39%
England	4	5.56%
Guyana	1	1.39%
Jamaica	3	4.17%
Multiple countries	11	15.27%
St. Thomas U.S Virgin Islands	3	4.17%
Trinidad	1	1.39%
Unanswered	16	22.22%
U.S.A	28	38.88%
Current University		
Bethune-Cookman University	1	1.38%
Dartmouth College	1	1.38%
Duke	2	2.77%
Florida A&M University	1	1.38%
Georgia State University	2	2.77%
Hocking College	1	1.38%
Howard University	1	1.38%

Table 1 (continued).

Variables	N	%
Indiana State University	1	1.38%
Ithaca College	1	1.38%
John's Hopkins University	1	1.38%
Miami Dade College	1	1.38%
Midwestern State University	33	45.83%
Monroe College	1	1.38%
Montgomery College	1	1.38%
North Carolina State University	8	12.00%
New School University	1	1.38%
Southeaster University	1	1.38%
St. John's University	1	1.38%
Stanford University	2	2.77%
Texas Tech University	1	1.38%
University of Florida	1	1.38%
University of North Carolina at Charlotte	2	2.77%
University of Miami	1	1.38%
Washington State University	1	1.38%
Western Michigan University	2	2.77%

Table 1 (continued).

Variables	N	%
Unanswered	2	2.77%
State Where Students Attend University or College		
Georgia	2	2.77%
California	2	2.77%
Florida	5	6.94%
Indiana	1	1.38%
Maryland	2	2.77%
Michigan	2	2.77%
Ohio	1	1.38%
New Hampshire	1	1.38%
New York	4	5.55%
North Carolina	13	18.05%
Texas	34	47.22%
The District of Columbia	2	2.77%
Washington State	1	1.38%
Unanswered	2	2.77%

Table 1 (continued).

Variables	N	%
Current Degree Seeking		
Undergraduate (Associate's Degree, Bachelor's Degree)	48	66.66%
Master's Degree	15	20.83%
Doctorate	9	12.50%
Current Major		
Accounting	4	5.56%
Anthropology	4	2.78%
Biology	2	1.39%
Biomedical Engineering	1	1.39%
Chemical Engineering	1	2.78%
Chemistry	2	4.11%
Clinical Laboratory Science	3	1.39%
Computer Information Systems	1	1.39%
Computer Sciences	1	4.11%
Counselor Education and supervision	3	2.77%
Double Major	2	22.22%
Economics	16	5.56%
Education	4	1.39%

Table 1 (continued).

Variables	N	%
Electrical Engineering	1	4.167%
Environmental Science	3	1.39%
Finance	1	1.39%
Food Science	1	1.39%
History	1	1.39%
Journalism	1	1.39%
Management	1	1.39%
Management of Information Services	1	4.16%
Marketing	3	1.39%
Master's of Business Administration	1	2.78%
Mechanical Engineering	2	2.78%
Nursing	2	1.39%
Organic Synthetic Chemistry	1	1.39%
Physics	1	1.39%
Psychology	1	6.94%
Public Policy	5	1.39%
Radiological Science	1	1.39%
Safety Management	1	1.39%
Special Education	1	1.39%

Table 1 (continued).

Variables	N	%
Unanswered	1	1.39%
Master's Students' Undergraduate Majors		
Accounting	1	1.39%
Business Computer Information Systems	1	1.39%
Chemical Engineering	1	1.39%
Chemistry	1	1.39%
Computer Information Systems	1	1.39%
Double Major	2	1.39%
Electrical Engineering	2	1.39%
History	1	1.39%
Mathematics	1	1.39%
Nutrition	1	1.39%
Physics	1	1.39%
Psychology	1	1.39%
Unspecified Engineering	1	1.39%

Table 1 (continued).

Variables	N	%
Doctoral Students' Undergraduate Degrees	Doctoral Students' Masters Degrees	
Chemistry/Pre-medicine	Organic Chemistry	
Community Psychology	Psychology	
Computer Science	Physics	
Music/Ethnomusicology	Pan African Music Studies	
Theology	Counselor Education	
Music/Ethnomusicology	Pan African Music Studies	
Live with relatives or other Caribbean students		
Yes	52	72.22%
No	18	25.00%
Unanswered	2	2.77%
Number of Unanswered Graduate Degree (MA or Ph.D.)	51	70.83%

Note. N = 72

Findings of Research Questions

Research Question One

What is the relationship between academic self-efficacy and culture shock in the sample?

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient was calculated between academic self-efficacy and culture shock. Pearson Product-Moment Correlation indicates the degree of linear relationship between two variables, ranging from +1 to -1. A correlation of +1 reflects that there is a perfect positive linear relationship between the variables. For this study, the correlation coefficient calculated indicated significant positive relationship between academic self-efficacy and culture shock. Additionally, there is a significant correlation between the two variables, at an alpha level of .05. The correlation between academic self-efficacy and culture shock for this study was .288 with a p -value of .02.

The coefficient of determination (R^2) was also calculated to assess the amount of shared variation between academic self-efficacy and culture shock. This calculation showed that only a small percentage of common variation, 8.3%, is explained by this relationship. Therefore, the strength of the correlation between academic self-efficacy and culture shock is weak, especially since 91.7% of the variance does not depend on either academic self-efficacy or culture shock.

Research Question Two

What is an emerging academic self-efficacy profile of the sample?

A descriptive statistical analysis was conducted, and a frequency distribution is presented. Special attention was given to the average and range scores of academic self-efficacy scored on the College Academic Self-efficacy Scale (CASES).

To demonstrate the emerging profiles of academic self-efficacy for this population, a descriptive statistical analysis was completed and a frequency distribution presented. The *N* values, mean scores, the range, the median, as well as the standard deviation, are reported for total self-efficacy score and for the self-efficacy score for each of the variables. These variables as related to the participants were: (a) gender, (b) age, (c) possession of a student visa, (d) the current degree being sought, (e) whether or not moved to the US immediately after high school or A-levels, (f) worked prior to coming to US for college, (g) had a relative who attended college prior, (h) the number of years in the US, (i) lived elsewhere besides country of origin, (j) visited the US at least once per year prior to college, (k) visited another country at least once per year prior to moving to the US, (l) and whether or not living with a relative or other Caribbean student here in the US. The “possession of a student visa” variable does not address the residency status of the students or other participants. The actual visa or residency types were reported in the demographic table, as nominal data.

The self-efficacy score can potentially range from 0 to 165. This range of score will apply to each of the variables, discussed.

Total Academic Self-Efficacy. Table 2 presents the overall mean academic self-efficacy score for the sample as 136.06, with a standard deviation of 15.56. Based on the analysis, the scores for the overall sample ranged from 94 to 159, yielding a range of 67. Additionally, the median score for the entire population was 138.50.

Table 2

Total Academic Self-Efficacy Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean	Median	Std. Dev	Range
Total Academic Self- Efficacy	62	136.06	138.50	15.56	67

Gender. Table 3 presents the means of the academic-self efficacy score on the CASES for the gender variable. The mean for females (137.25) was close to the mean for the males (134.04); however the mean for females was higher by 3.21 points. The standard deviations were also very close for both males (15.63) and females (15.58). Based on similarities between the means and the standard deviations for men and women, it appears gender, for this sample, does not play a major role in the level of academic self-efficacy among Caribbean overseas students in the study. Females represented 62% of the final sample, while males

represented 37%. Additionally, based on the analysis, the scores ranged from 92 to 159 for females, while for men it ranged from 55 to 104.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics for Academic Self-Efficacy by Gender

	N	Mean	Median	Std. Dev	Range
Female	39	137.25	139	15.63	67
Male	23	134.04	138	15.58	55

Age. The mean of the academic-self efficacy score based on age of the participants is presented in Table 4. The highest mean age for Caribbean overseas students was for participants between the ages of 36-41. The mean value for this age range was 150.33 with a standard deviation of 5.68. These values were relatively higher than the other means and standard deviations for the other age group. Interestingly, this was the smallest age group representing only 4.83% of sample ages. On the other hand, the mean age of individuals between ages 18-20 was the lowest, with a mean of 125.28 and a standard deviation of 11.36. Although this group had the lowest mean, it did have four more individuals than the 36-41 group which has the highest mean. The 18-20 age group, 7 participants represented 11.29% of the participants ages. No one represented the 42+ category.

Like gender, the range of scores on the CASES for age groups was also analyzed. The range for the 31-35 age group and the range for the 36-41 group were the closest in value. For the 31-35 age group the range was 13, with the lowest score any participant received being 136 and the highest being 149. The 36-41 age group, the range was 11, with the lowest score received 144 and the highest being 155. In the 18-20 age group no individual received a score lower than 106 or score higher than 138. For the 21-25 age group the lowest score of any participant was 92 and highest was 159. Additionally, with the 26-30 group the minimum score received was 113 and the maximum score was 159.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics for Academic Self-Efficacy by Age

	N	Mean	Median	Std. Dev	Range
18-20	7	125.28	124	11.36	32
21-25	33	134.24	139	17.70	67
26-30	15	141.00	140	13.33	46
31-35	4	140.75	139	5.90	13
36-41	3	150.33	152	5.68	11

Possession of a student visa. As recorded in Table 5, forty seven, 75.80% of the Caribbean overseas student in the study, reported having a student visa. This group's mean was 137.91 and a standard deviation of 15.19. In contrast, 15

participants who did not have a student visa had a mean score of 130.26 with a standard deviation of 15.79. It is noteworthy that this group had the lowest mean score of all category variables related to academic self-efficacy in the study.

Additionally, the range of scores for the participants with or without a student visa was also analyzed. For groups of participants, those who had student visas and those who didn't, the maximum score anyone received were the same, 159, although the ranges differed. For students who had a student visa, the lowest score a participant received was 92 while the highest was 159, yielding a range of 67. For the students without a student visa, the lowest score was 106 and the highest scored was 159, yielding a range of 53.

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics for Academic Self-Efficacy by Possession of Student Visa

	N	Mean	Median	Std. Dev	Range
Yes	47	137.91	141	15.19	67
No	15	130.26	132	15.79	53

Current degree sought. A bachelor's degree (BA) was the most sought after degree among Caribbean overseas students, while the Ph.D. degree was the least sought after among the sample. There were 40 (64.51%) students who were perusing a BA, 13 (20.96%) pursuing a master's degree (MA), and 9 (14.51%) were pursuing a Ph.D. The mean score for students seeking a BA,

who took the CASES, was 132.15 with a standard deviation of 16.16. Those pursuing a MA degree had a mean score of 140.15 with a standard deviation of 9.19 and those pursuing a Ph.D. had a mean score of 145.55 with a standard deviation of 13.96.

Again the range of scores for this variable was assessed. The assessment showed that Caribbean overseas students seeking a Master's degree had the lowest range of scores, those seeking a Ph.D. had the middle range of score, while those seeking a Bachelor's degree had the highest range. Both the BA and MA seeking students had 155 as the highest score of any participant which was only four points lower than the Ph.D. students; their highest score was 159. On the other hand, the minimum score were a little further apart, bachelor's degree seekers had a minimum score of 92, master's degree seekers had a minimum score of 124 and Ph.D. students had a minimum score of 116. Table 6 presents the frequency distribution of the degrees sought.

The frequency distribution for those Caribbean overseas students who reported whether or not they moved to the US immediately after high school or A-levels is presented in Table 7. The mean scores for both groups of participants were very close. Twenty participants, 33.33%, having moved immediately to the US had a mean of 134.4, with a standard deviation of 16.06. Forty participants, 66.66 % who did not move immediately, had a mean score of 136.3 with a standard deviation of 15.61. However, although their mean scores were similar,

their lowest and highest scores on the CASES were not as close. The minimum score any participant, who moved to the US immediately after high school or A-levels had, was 104 with the maximum being 159, with a range of 55.

Participants who did not move to the US immediately after high school or A-levels, had minimum score of 92 and a maximum score 159, with a range of 67.

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics for Academic Self-Efficacy by Current Degree Sought

	N	Mean	Median	Std. Dev	Range
Bachelor's Degree	40	132.15	138	16.16	63
Master's Degree	13	140.15	138	9.19	31
Ph.D.	9	147.55	152	13.96	43
Unanswered	2	0	0	0	0

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics for Academic Self-Efficacy by Moved to the US immediately after high school or A-levels

	N	Mean	Median	Std. Dev	Range
Yes	20	134.4	137.5	16.06	55
No	40	136.3	139	15.61	67

Worked prior to coming to US for college. A frequency distribution of how Caribbean overseas students' CASES scores were affected by whether or not they worked prior to coming to the US for college is presented in Table 8. Forty three participants (70.4%), of the 61 who completed the question, reported that they worked prior to moving to the US, while 18 (29.5%) reported that they did not work prior to moving. The mean score of the students who worked prior was 136.95, not much higher than those who did not work prior, 133.05. The standard deviation for each group respectively was 14.13 and 18.69.

The ranges of scores on the CASES for Caribbean overseas students who either worked or did not work prior to coming to the US were also evaluated. Those who worked before coming to college had a minimum score of 92 and a maximum score of 155, with a range of 63; those who did not work prior had a minimum score of 104 and a maximum score of 159, with a range of 65.

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics for Academic Self-Efficacy by Worked Prior to Moving to the US

	N	Mean	Median	Std. Dev	Range
Yes	43	136.95	139	14.13	63
No	18	133.05	135	18.69	55

Had a relative who attended college prior to coming to the US. Table 9 presents the frequency distribution of how participants, who had relatives that attended college prior to them coming to the US, affected their CASES scores. Sixty one participants answered the question, and of that number, 48 (78.68%) said that they had a relative who attended college prior to their coming to the US to attend college. Thirteen (21.31%) participants reported not having a relative go to college prior to coming to the US to attend school. The mean and standard deviation for the ones who did was 136.83 and 15.12 while the mean and standard deviation for those who did not were 132.23 and 17.4.

As with previous variables, the range of the scores on the survey was examined. Students who had relatives, who preceded them in attending college or university, scored no less than 55 while they scored no more than 104. For students who did not have a relative precede them in college, they scored no less than 63 and no higher than 92.

Table 9

Descriptive Statistics for Academic Self-Efficacy by Had a Relative who attended College Prior

	N	Mean	Median	Std. Dev	Range
Yes	48	136.83	138.5	15.12	55
No	13	132.23	137	17.40	63

The number of years in the US. Participants were asked to choose from one of three categories that represented the total number of years they have lived in the US. This time included consecutive or nonconsecutive years from zero to 10 years, broken into five year intervals on the instrument. Forty six (76.66%) students have lived in the US for less than five years. Their mean score on the CASES was 132.52 with a standard deviation of 15.26. The 10 (16.66%) individuals who had been in the US between 6 to 10 years had an average score of 144.6 with a standard deviation of 13.32. For the students who lived in the US for more than 10 years (5; 8.33%) their average score was 149.2, with a standard deviation of 9.75.

The ranges of the three groups were also assessed. The group of students, who had been in the US for five years or less, scored between 92 and 155, with a range of 63. Those who had been in the US six to 10 years scored between 113 and 159, with a range of 46; finally, those who had lived in the US more than 10 years in total, scored between 137 and 159, and a range of 22. This distribution is presented in Table 10.

Lived elsewhere besides country of origin. Of the 61 Caribbean overseas students who responded to this question, only eight (13.11%) responded to having lived elsewhere, other than the US and their country of origin. The other 54 (88.52%) students responded to not having living elsewhere besides their home country and the US. The means for both groups were relatively close

despite the big difference in *N*s. The eight who lived elsewhere had an average score of 132.75 while the 54 who did not, had an average score of 136.55. Their standard deviations were 19.35 and 15.08 respectively.

For the students who lived elsewhere, their academic self-efficacy score was between of 104 and 155, causing a range of 51. The ones who did not live elsewhere had academic self-efficacy scores between 92 and 159, causing their range to be 67. Table 11 presents the distribution of this variable.

Table 10

Descriptive Statistics for Academic Self-Efficacy by Number of Years in the US

	N	Mean	Median	Std. Dev	Range
0-5 years	46	132.53	137	15.26	63
6-10 years	10	144.6	147.5	13.32	46
more than 10 years	5	149.2	152	9.75	22

Table 11

Descriptive Statistics for Academic Self-Efficacy by Lived Elsewhere besides Country of Origin

	N	Mean	Median	Std. Dev	Range
Yes	8	132.75	131	19.35	51
No	54	136.55	138.5	15.08	67

Visited the US at least once per year prior to college. The numbers of Caribbean overseas students in the study that visited the US at least once per year prior to attending college and those who did not, were relatively close. Thirty (48.38%) of the students responded that they visited the US at least once per year prior, while 32 (51.61%) responded that they did not. Similarly, their average scores on the CASES were also close. The average score for students who visited at least once per year was 135.46, while for those who did not, their average score was 136.62. Additionally, the standard deviation for those that visited at least once per year was 16.98, while the standard deviation for those that did not was 14.36.

Unlike the average scores, the range score for both groups was much further apart. Students who visited the US at least once per year prior, scored between 92 and 159 on the CASES, yielding a range of 67. Those who did not visit prior scored between 108 and 155, yielding a range of 47. Table 12 presents the frequency distribution of the variable.

Table 12

Descriptive Statistics for Academic Self-Efficacy Visited the US at least once per Year Prior to College

	N	Mean	Median	Std. Dev	Range
Yes	30	135.46	138	16.98	67
No	32	136.62	139.5	14.36	47

Visited another country at least once per year prior to moving to the US.

Of the 60 participants who responded to this question, 39 (65%) said that they visited other countries, other than the US at least once per year prior to college. Twenty one (35%) said they did not. There was a slight difference between the mean scores on the CASES for both groups. The students that visited other countries had a mean score of 136.35 and a standard deviation of 15.87, while those who did not, had a mean score of 133.80 and standard deviation of 14.83.

As with the previous variables, the range scores were analyzed. The students who visited other countries scored between 92 and 157, yielding a range score of 65; the students who did not visit other countries at least once per year, scored between 112 and 159, yielding a range score of 47. It is worth noting that the individuals who visited either the US or another country at least once a year prior to college had ranges that were only two points apart (67 for visiting the US at least once per year and 65 for visiting another country at least once per year). Additionally, the range of score for individuals who did not visit either the US or another country at least once a year, prior to college had the same range score of 47. Table 13 presents the frequency distribution of the variable.

Table 13

Descriptive Statistics for Academic Self-Efficacy by Visited another Country at least once per Year Prior to College

	N	Mean	Median	Std. Dev	Range
Yes	39	136.35	139	15.87	65
No	21	133.80	138	14.83	47

Living with a relative or other Caribbean student here in the US. As Table 14 presents, the majority of the respondents, 44 (70.96%), said that they lived with either a relative or other Caribbean student. Eighteen (29.03%) said that they did not live with a relative or other Caribbean student. Unfortunately, this question did not ask students to specify whether they lived with a relative or other student, so it was not clear how many lived with relatives and how many lived with other students and if either would make a difference.

The average score for each group was similar. Students who lived with a relative or other student had an average score of 136.61 on the CASES, while those who did not had an average score of 134.72. Respectively, the standard deviations of the scores were 14.43 and 18.59. The ones who lived with a relative or other student had scores between 92 and 159 with a range of 67. Those who did not had scores between 104 and 157, with a range of 53.

Table 14

Descriptive Statistics for Academic Self-Efficacy by Currently Living with a Relative or Other Caribbean Student

	N	Mean	Median	Std. Dev	Range
Yes	44	136.61	138.5	14.34	67
No	18	134.72	140.5	18.59	53

Multiple Linear Regression Analysis

In addition to the frequency distributions being calculated, a multiple linear regression of the variables was also conducted, for each variable and academic self-efficacy. Table 15 shows the results of this linear regression for each variable. The purpose of the multiple linear regression analysis was to assess whether or not each of the variables had a significant affect on the academic self-efficacy of students. Additionally, it was done to assess which of the variables affect had the greatest affect on academic self-efficacy.

Based on the regression analysis for this study's sample, none of the variables appeared to have a significant effect on academic self-efficacy at an alpha level of .05. The p -values ranged from .13 to .77.

Table 15

Multiple Linear Regression for Variables' Self-efficacy Results

Variable	<i>p</i> -value
Gender	0.34
Age	0.48
Possession of Student Visa	0.24
Current Degree Sought	0.21
Moved to the US immediately after high school or A-levels	0.30
Worked Prior to Moving to the US	0.13
Had a Relative who attended College Prior	0.26
The total number of years in the US	0.18
Lived elsewhere besides country of origin	0.59
Visited the US at least once per year prior to college	0.77
Visited another country at least once per year prior to moving to the US	0.74
Whether or not living with a relative or other Caribbean student here in the US	0.41
Total CSQ scores	0.02

Question Three

What is an emerging culture shock profile of the sample? A descriptive statistical analysis was conducted and a frequency distribution is presented.

Special attention was given to the average and range scores of culture shock scores on *Culture Shock Questionnaire* (CSQ). To demonstrate the emerging profiles of culture shock for this population, a descriptive statistical analysis was completed and a frequency distribution is presented. The mean scores, the range, the median, standard deviation, as well as the *N* value will be reported for culture shock for each of the variables. Like self-efficacy scores, the variables used in the analysis were: gender, age, visa possession of a student visa, the current degree being sought, whether or not moved to the US immediately after high school or A-levels, worked prior to coming to US for college, had a relative who attended college prior, the number of years in the US, lived elsewhere besides country of origin, visited the US at least once per year prior to college, visited another country at least once per year prior to moving to the US, and whether or not living with a relative or other Caribbean student here in the US. As mentioned for self-efficacy, the possession of a student visa variable does not address the residency status of the students or other participants. The actual visa or residency types were reported in the demographic table.

The culture shock score can potentially range from 12 to 36. This range will apply to each of the variables, discussed.

Total Academic Culture Shock. Table 16 presents the overall mean culture shock score for the sample as 27.74, with a standard deviation of 3.21. Based on the analysis, the scores for the overall sample ranged from 20 to 36,

yielding a range of 16. Additionally, the median score for the entire population was 28.

Table 16

Descriptive Statistics for Total Culture Shock

	N	Mean	Median	Std. Dev	Range
Total Culture Shock	62	27.74	28	3.2	28

Gender. The mean of the culture shock score for the gender of the participants is presented in Table 17. The mean scores for both females (27.66) and for the males (27.86) were only different by .20. The standard deviation for females was 2.66 and was 4.03 for males. Based on these data, it appears gender, for this sample, did not affect levels of culture shock. Females represented 62% of the final sample, while males represented 37% of the sample. Additionally, based on the analysis, the scores ranged from 22-34 for females (range score 12), while the scores for men ranged from 20-36 (range score 16). These scores mean that female participants in the study received a score of no less than 22 and or more than 34 where as, males received no less than 20 and no more than 36 CSQ.

Table 17

Descriptive Statistics for Culture Shock by Gender

	N	Mean	Median	Std. Dev	Range
Female	39	27.66	28	2.66	12
Male	23	27.89	28	4.03	16

Age. The mean of the culture shock score for the age of the participants is presented in Table 18. Mean values, for all age categories, were very similar, suggesting that age had no significant influence on levels of culture shock. The highest mean for age categories was 29.6, with a standard deviation of 2.5 which correspond with the 26-30 age group. This group represented 24.19% of the sample of ages. Meanwhile, the lowest mean for age categories was 36-41 group, with a mean of 25 and a standard deviation of 3.6. This group represented 4.83 % of the age sample. Additionally, the mean value for the 18-20 age group was 25.57 with a standard deviation of 3.5. These student ages represent 11.29%. The 21-25 group had the most students represented, with a mean of 27.72 and a standard deviation of 3.09. This group represented 53.22%. Finally, the 30-35 group had a mean of 26.7 and a standard deviation of 26.75. It represented 6.45% of the groups of ages. No one represented the 42+ category.

Like gender, the range of scores on the CSQ for age groups was also analyzed. Similar to the means for age, the ranges for all categories were close in value. With a range of nine, participants for the 18-20 age group had a minimum score of 20 and a maximum score of 29. For the 21-25 age group the lowest score of any participant got was 22 and highest score was 34, with a range of 12. Additionally, with a range score of 11, the 26-30 group scored a minimum 25 and a maximum of 36 while the 31-35 age group the range was 7, with students scoring no less than 23 and no more than 30. Like the previous group, 36-41 age group, had a range of 7, with students scoring no more less than 22 and no more than 29.

Possession of a student visa. As recorded in Table 19, 47 (75.80%) of the Caribbean overseas student in the study, reported having a student visa. The group mean was 27.89 and a standard deviation of 3.08. In contrast, 15 participants, 21.49 % did not have a student visa and had a mean score of 27.26 with a standard deviation of 3.67.

The range of scores for the participants with or without a student visa was also analyzed. Students who had visas had a range of 14, with the minimum score any student received being 22 and the maximum anyone received was 36. Students without a student visa had a very close range to the other group, 13; their minimum score was 20 and their highest scored was 33.

Table 18

Descriptive Statistics for Culture Shock by Age

	N	Mean	Median	Std. Dev	Range
18-20	7	25.57	26	3.5	9
21-25	33	27.72	28	3.09	12
26-30	15	29.6	29	2.50	11
31-35	4	26.75	27	2.87	7
36-41	3	25	24	2.60	7

Table 19

Descriptive Statistics for Culture Shock by Possession of Student Visa

	N	Mean	Median	Std. Dev	Range
Yes	47	27.89	28	3.08	14
No	15	27.26	28	3.67	13

Current degree sought. As stated previously, a bachelor's degree was the most sought among Caribbean overseas students, while the Ph.D. degree was the least sought among the sample. There were 40 (64.51%) students who were pursuing a BA, 13 (20.96%) pursuing a MA, and 9 (14.51%) were pursuing a Ph.D. The mean scores on the CSQ for Caribbean overseas students based on the degree they were pursuing were very close. Students working on a BA had

an average of 27.52, those working on a MA averaged 27.69 and those working on a Ph.D. had an average of about one point higher, 28.77. Their respective standard deviations were 3.06, 3.85, and 3.03.

Again the range of scores for this variable was assessed. Unlike on the CASES range score on the CSQ, for Caribbean overseas students seeking a MA had the highest range scores of 16; those seeking a BA had the middle range score of 12, while those seeking a Ph.D. had the lowest range score of 10. Students seeking a BA had a minimum score of 22; those seeking a MA had a minimum score of 20; those seeking a Ph.D. had a minimum score of 24. Additionally, students who sought a BA or a Ph.D. had the same maximum score of 34 while those who sought MA had a maximum score of only two points more, 36. Table 20 presents the frequency distribution of the degrees.

Moved to the US immediately after high school or A-levels. Twenty of the 60 participants answered the question of whether or not they moved to the US immediately after high school or A-levels to attend college. This small number probably affected the mean scores of the students who completed the question. Table 21 will present the frequency distribution for those students who reported whether or not they moved to the US immediately after high school or A-levels. Similar to the CASES mean scores, the mean scores for both groups of participants were very close. Participants who reported having moved immediately to the US had a mean of 27.3, with a standard deviation of 3.51.

Those who did not move immediately had a mean score of 28.2 with a standard deviation of 2.93.

Like their mean scores, their lowest and highest scores on the CASES were also close. Additionally, the ranges for each group were the same, 14. The minimum score any participant, who moved to the US immediately after high school or A-levels, had was 20 with the highest being 34. Participants who did not move to the US immediately after high school or A-levels, had scores ranging from 22 to 36.

Table 20

Descriptive Statistics for Culture Shock by Current Degree Sought

	N	Mean	Median	Std. Dev	Range
Bachelor's Degree	40	27.52	28	3.06	12
Master's Degree	13	27.69	28	3.85	16
Ph.D.	9	28.77	29	3.03	10
Unanswered	2	0	0	0	0

Table 21

Descriptive Statistics for Culture Shock by Moved to the US immediately after high school or A-levels

	N	Mean	Median	Std. Dev	Range
Yes	20	27.3	28	3.51	14
No	40	28.2	28	2.93	14

Worked prior to coming to US for college. A frequency distribution of how Caribbean overseas students' CSQ scores were affected by whether or not they worked prior to coming to the US for college is presented in Table 22. Forty three participants (70.4%), of the 61 who completed the question, reported that they worked prior to moving to the US while 18 (29.5%) reported that they did not work prior. The mean score of the students who worked prior was 27.3, not much higher than those who did not work prior, 28.2 which are similar to the mean scores on students scored on the CASES. The standard deviation for each group respectively was 3.51 and 2.93.

The ranges of scores on the CASES for Caribbean overseas students who either worked or did not work prior to coming to the US were also evaluated. The range for both groups was 14. Those who worked before coming to college had a minimum score of 20 and a maximum score of 34; those who did not work prior had a minimum score of 22 and a maximum score of 36.

Table 22

Descriptive Statistics for Culture Shock by Worked Prior to Moving to the US

	N	Mean	Median	Std. Dev	Range
Yes	43	27.86	28	3.07	14
No	18	27.66	28	3.58	14

Had a relative who attended college prior. Table 23 presents the frequency distribution of how participants who had relatives, that attended college prior to their coming to the US, affected their level of culture shock. The mean and standard deviation for the ones who did have relatives attend college prior to their coming to the US was 27.70 and 3.35 while the mean and standard deviation for those who did not have relatives who attended college prior were 27.69 and 2.83. These scores mean that having a relative who attended college prior did not significantly affect levels of culture shock for this group.

Students who had relatives, who preceded them in attending college or university, scored no less than 20 while they scored no more than 36. For students who did not have a relative precede them in college, they scored no less than 22 and no higher than 31. Their ranges were 16 and nine respectively.

Table 23

Descriptive Statistics for Culture Shock by Had a Relative who attended College Prior

	N	Mean	Median	Std. Dev	Range
Yes	48	27.70	28	3.35	16
No	13	27.69	28	2.83	9

The number of years in the US. Participants were asked to choose one of three categories that represented the total number of consecutive and non-consecutive years they have lived in the US. These categories were 0 to 5 years, 6 to 10 years, and more than 10 years. The ones who have been in the US between 0 and five years had a mean score, on the CSQ, of 27.10 with a standard deviation of 3.02. Individuals who had been in the US between 6 to 10 years had an average score of 30.2 with a standard deviation of 3.45. For the students who lived in the US for more than ten years, their average score was 28.4, with a standard deviation of 2.60.

The ranges of the three groups were also assessed. The group of students, who had been in the US for five years or less, had a range of score of between 20 and 34, and a range of 14. Those who had been in the US six to 10 years had a range of scores between 24 and 36, and a range of 12; students

who had lived in the US more than 10 years in total, had a range of score between 24 and 30, and a range of six. This distribution is presented in Table 24.

Table 24

Descriptive Statistics for Culture Shock by Number of Years in the US

	N	Mean	Median	Std. Dev	Range
0-5 years	46	27.1	28	3.02	14
6-10 years	10	30.2	29.5	3.45	12
more than 10 years	5	28.4	30	2.60	6

Lived elsewhere besides country of origin. The means for both groups were relatively close despite the big difference in Ns. The eight of those who lived elsewhere had an average score of 29.15 while the 54 who did not, had an average score of 27.53. Their standard deviations were 3.60 and 3.13 respectively.

The students who lived elsewhere scored between of 23 and 36, causing a range of 13. The ones who did not live elsewhere, scored between 20 and 34, causing their range score to be 14. Table 25 presents the distribution of variable.

Visited the US at least once per year prior to college. As mentioned previously, the numbers of Caribbean overseas students in the study that visited the US at least once per year, prior to attending college and those who did not, was very close. Thirty (48.38%) of the students responded that they visited the

US at least once per year prior, while 32 (51.61%) responded that they did not. Additionally, the average score for students who visited at least once per year was 27.93, while for those who did not, their average score was 27.56. Additionally, the standard deviation for those that visited at least once per year was 3.69, while the standard deviation for those that did not was 2.73.

Unlike the average scores, the range score for both groups were further apart. Students who visited the US at least once per year prior, scored between 20 and 36 on the CSQ, yielding a range of 16. Those who did not visit prior scored between 22 and 33, yielding a range of 11. Table 26 presents the frequency distribution of the variable.

Table 25

Descriptive Statistics for Culture Shock by Lived Elsewhere besides Country of Origin

	N	Mean	Median	Std. Dev	Range
Yes	8	29.12	29	3.60	13
No	54	27.53	28	3.13	14

Table 26

Descriptive Statistics for Culture Shock by Visited the US at least once per Year Prior to College

	N	Mean	Median	Std. Dev	Range
Yes	30	27.93	28	3.69	16
No	32	27.56	28	2.73	11

Visited another country at least once per year prior to moving to the US.

Thirty nine participants (65%) said that they visited other countries, other than the US at least once per year prior to college and 21 (35%) said they did not. The mean scores both groups were relatively the same. The students that visited other countries had an average of 27.87, with a standard deviation of 3.10, while those who did not, had an average of 27.42 and standard deviation of 3.59. Both groups had the same range score of 14, although their minimum and maximum scores were different. For those who visited other countries, their minimum score was 22 and their maximum was 36; the students who did not visit other countries at least once per year, had a minimum score of 20 and a maximum score of 34. These frequencies are presented in Table 27.

Table 27

Descriptive Statistics for Culture Shock by Visited another Country at least once per Year Prior to College

	N	Mean	Median	Std. Dev	Range
Yes	39	27.87	28	3.10	14
No	21	27.42	28	3.59	14

Living with a relative or other Caribbean student here in the US. As Table 28 shows, the majority of the respondents, 44 (70.96%), reported that they lived with either a relative or other Caribbean student. Eighteen (29.03%) indicated that they did not live with a relative or other Caribbean student. Unfortunately, as stated above, this question did not ask students to specify whether they lived with a relative or other student, so it is not clear how many live with relatives and how many live with other students.

The average score for each group was only one point apart. Students who lived with a relative or other student had an average score of 28, while those who did not had an average score of 27.11. Respectively, the standard deviations of the scores were 3.51 and 2.27. The ones who lived with a relative or other student had scores between 20 and 36 with a range of 16, while those who did not, had scores between 23 and 30, with a range of seven.

Table 28

Descriptive Statistics for Culture Shock by Living with a relative or other Caribbean student here in the US

	N	Mean	Median	Std. Dev	Range
Yes	44	28.00	28	3.51	16
No	18	27.11	28	2.27	7

Multiple Linear Regression Analysis

In addition to the frequency distributions being calculated, a multiple linear regression of the variables was also conducted, for each variable and culture shock. Table 29 shows the results of this linear regression for each variable.

Only “the number of years in the US” variable appeared to have a significant effect on culture shock at an alpha level of .01. This variable had a p -value of .0097. The variable, “live lived with relative or other Caribbean student” had an almost significant p -value of .07. The p -values of the other variable ranged from .18 to .91.

Table 29

Multiple Linear Regression for Variables' Self-efficacy Results

Variable	<i>p</i> -value
Gender	0.648
Age	0.848
Possession of Student Visa	0.640
Current Degree Sought	0.689
Moved to the US immediately after high school or A-levels	0.490
Worked Prior to Moving to the US	0.802
Had a Relative who attended College Prior	0.913
The total number of years in the US	0.009
Lived elsewhere besides country of origin	0.181
Visited the US at least once per year prior to college	0.507
Visited another country at least once per year prior to moving to the US	0.772
Whether or not living with a relative or other Caribbean student here in the US	0.079
Total CASES mean scores	0.098

Question 4

What are some factors that you believe influence(d) your academic self-efficacy here in the US?

The major emerging themes that participants attribute to their academic self-efficacy are: *educational background, faith in God, finances, age and maturity, influence and support of others, self-determination, and previous success of other and of self.*

Educational background. Many of the participants attributed their academic self-efficacy to their educational background. Some reported that they felt that coming from a British influenced school system for primary, secondary, and tertiary levels (A-Levels) of education, gave them a “head start” and prepared them for starting school in the United States. The British system, according to some participants, provided a strict environment that required them to be more disciplined than their American counterparts when attending universities in the US. Participants from non-British school systems, that is, Dutch and US, also attributed their academic efficacy to the fact that most of their educational foundation was in the Caribbean. Faith based school environments were also mentioned as affecting academic efficacy. For example, some participants expressed that their Catholic school background has greatly influenced their current efficacy in the classroom. Conversely, a few participants said that their academic self-efficacy was negatively affected as a result of their

academic background in the Caribbean. One reported that in America the education level is more advanced, therefore causing some academic difficulties; another reported that, although the Caribbean system gives Caribbean students a head start, and it also encourages some laziness for them in the US classrooms, hence affecting their grade. It was reported that this laziness is as a result of getting comfortable and sometimes bored with already knowing the information being taught, hence not feeling the need to exert a lot of energy over in-class and out of class assignments.

Additionally, some older students reported that their past training in specific skills such as general and multiple disciplinary and teacher education training, helped to boost their academic self-efficacy. One participant stated, “I had a solid foundation and had already developed the skills necessary to succeed in a higher institution of learning.”

Faith in God. Several participants attributed their beliefs in their abilities to their faith in God and strong religious/spiritual background. They also reported their academic efficacy was influenced by the knowledge that with God’s help and with “His” guidance they could succeed. This knowledge, some reported, came from their parents telling them that God would influence anything they did. This knowledge, coupled with the fact that growing up in a church community also fueled academic efficacy.

Finances. Various issues related to finances and being in school were listed as factors that influenced academic self-efficacy among the participants. A common theme was the high cost of education in the United States for international students and the worries over how to pay for it. The difficulty of acquiring a student loan and other financial aid required, as well as the general lack of personal money were mentioned as sources of stress, hence sometimes adversely affecting academic efficacy. Additionally, some participants reported that the fact that their parents were investing considerable amounts of money for them to attend a university and accomplish their academic goals played a significant role and served as a source of positive motivation. This parental investment, some participants stated, encouraged a positive belief in oneself. One participant stated, “my parents have invested a lot of money so that I may accomplish this goal, and so I think that plays a significant role in motivating me to do the best that I can do to better myself and make them and myself proud.”

Age and maturity. Age and maturity were also reported as sources enhancing levels of academic efficacy when the participants arrived in the US to attend college. Coupled with age and maturity, they stated that their responsibilities after high school, personally and professionally, contributed to their maturity. These factors included the responsibilities of being the primary wage earner for their families and previous work experience. Their prior work experience, reported by some, helped their academic efficacy since it provided

prior experience in the field of study here in the US. Additionally, some reported that working in a strict work environment also helped them develop a sense of maturity and good work ethic that they have been able to utilize in the classroom and which has helped to foster a positive sense of academic efficacy.

Influence and support of others. Parental influence was reported by participants as a source of positive academic efficacy. This influence was reportedly manifested in various ways. One was the fact that participants felt the need to live up to high parental expectations. Along with this expectation, participants reported that parental encouragement, such as being told they could excel, also impacted their beliefs in their academic abilities. This encouragement, they reported was both past and present and served as a motivator to perform even harder and the confidence that they could be successful. Participants also reported that the encouragement and support from extended family members (aunts and uncles), friends, high school counselors, college recruiters, faculty and other mentors influenced their academic efficacy positively. A couple of participants reported that the academic and social support of fellow Caribbean students who were in the US prior to their arrival and those who arrived around the same time, helped them adjust to the new academic environment. The support and adjustment, they reported positively impacted their belief that they could be successful academically. One participant stated, "It is helpful to have like-minded students around me."

One participant reported a different kind of influence. The individual reported that being an influence on younger siblings and cousins served as a motivator. This motivation served to boost academic efficacy since s/he felt like there was the need to do well, knowing that s/he was being emulated. Additionally, this fact provided a source of belief in academic abilities, since a priority, "is to set a good example with the hope of being able to encourage them to do good in school so that they too could attend university."

Self-determination. Another theme that surfaced was the participants' self determination. Many stated that the determination to do their best, to be successful and excel, helped them to believe in their ability to accomplish academic tasks required of them. Additionally, the willingness to work hard and to learn, as well as the ability to pay attention to details were also stated as contributing factors to academic efficacy. One participant credited the belief in level of intelligence as a factor. The individual stated, "I consider myself to be fairly intelligent and so I know I can be successful in attaining my degree." Other factors mentioned were self-motivation, strong-will, desire to achieve greatness in life and in the "academic arena", passion, wanting to have a better life for myself and the desire to increase self development.

Previous success of other and of self. Participants stated that the past success of others around them and their own past success served to influence their academic efficacy. Some stated that observing and learning experiences of

others who were successful, was helpful. They stated the successes of other students before them served as an inspiration and signal that they too could be successful.

The academic success of family members, who attended university prior to the participants, was also reported as having an impact on a participant's academic efficacy. One participant stated that growing up with both my parents who had advanced degrees, played a role while another reported that looking up to a very successful older brother also boosted academic efficacy.

Participants listed their own past success as a contributing factor to their belief of self in college. Some reported always being good students and working hard to maintain their grades. Their prior success, they said, helped them to believe that they can achieve their academic goals. A student who received "impressive grades" during the semester of undergraduate studies, which yielded scholarships, reported that that success encouraged continued efforts to do well, and in turn enhanced academic efficacy.

In addition to past and present success, some participants reported that the potential for future success served to boost their academic efficacy. Some stated that they were aware that academic success could lead to a good job after college and that knowledge served to fuel their belief that they could and would have to be success while in college.

Question 5

Do you think you have experienced culture shock here in the US? Briefly explain your answer whether YES or NO.

Thirty eight participants reported having experienced symptoms culture shock while in the US while 20 reported not experience symptoms. One participant reported some uncertainty about symptoms, stating, “yes and no”, while another’s response could not be determined as yes or no. This person stated, “Americans still thinking you got here on a boat!!” Thirteen participants did not answer the questions.

The thematic analysis of the participants who said they experienced symptoms of culture shock will be first discussed. The responses of the participants who said they did not experience symptoms of culture will then be discussed, followed by the ones who were uncertain.

Experience Culture Shock.

Loneliness and feelings of not fitting in. It was evident that many participants experienced loneliness as a symptom of culture shock. They reported that they missed home and were lonely at times. Many attributed their loneliness to the fact that no members of their immediate family and close friends were in the US. One individual stated that, “I craved the voices of the members of my family constantly.” Another reported that despite the fact that s/he had friends in the US, there was still a sense of loneliness being away from family

and not having anyone from the family to speak to. Additionally, the realization that the possibilities of returning home to visit with family and friends may not be an option for a while, added to that sense of longing for the closeness they left behind.

Although from a US territory, individuals from the US Virgin Islands also reported culture shock. They stated that when they first arrived in the US, they were not prepared to feel so alienated. One individual reported feeling angry at the perceived treatment received from US mainland students. This perception, the individual stated, created a "feeling of not fitting in" not because there is nobody around but because there was difficulty relating to the people around.

Another reason stated as a contributor to symptoms of culture shock was the difference in age and maturity of some classmates in American classrooms. Older participants stated that they had difficulty relating to their adolescent classmates and having to take classes with them. One stated, "being older I can't relate to a lot adolescent stuff." Another stated that, "it was difficult to get used to the behavior of the young ones. I was used to being the boss and respected by people their age and they seldom acknowledge me and they are rude to the professors. I am not used to that."

The general lack of a sense of general community and the togetherness of their home countries was reported by participants as a factor contributing to their symptom of culture shock. The lack of a sense of community, some stated, was

compounded by the fact that it took a while for them to find a group to which they could belong. Some reported that they withdrew and hardly spoke to anyone. Others reported that they found it difficult to make friends which caused a sense of loneliness. However, a few stated that once they found a Caribbean community to be a part of, the symptoms lessened.

Anxiety and depression. Another manifestation of symptoms of culture shock participants reported were feelings of anxiousness and depression. The anxiety and depression, according to participants, was as a result of various issues they faced as overseas students in the US. Similar to the feelings of loneliness, some participants reported that their anxiety was as a result of feeling like they did not fit in. One person reported mild depression and anxiety after talking to friends back home and therefore eventually stopped calling. Some attributed their anxiety to the fact that they did not feel secure in their new environment. Participants also report that they experienced anxiety about their grades and felt pressured to perform well above normal expectations in an effort to overcompensate and to prove themselves even more to professors because of their difference in accent and culture.

Finances were listed as a source of anxiety for some participants. They reported that needing to establish credit and using credit cards was difficult since they came from a culture where cash is often used as the primary source of payment for goods and services. They were anxious about the new financial

system and learning how to adapt to it. Financial hardship was also given as a source of anxiety and sometimes depression. Participants did not elaborate on exactly what they meant by financial hardship.

Many reported that their depression and anxiety was manifested through abnormal sleeping patterns that they were not accustomed at home. One person reported that it took an hour or more to get to sleep at times. Additionally, as mentioned previously, there were some participants who did not feel secure and as a result had a hard time sleeping in their new environment; this insecurity, as reported by one person, caused sleep deprivation and led to irritability. Others reported that they had sleepless nights because of feelings of homesickness.

Value system and cultural differences. Many participants agreed with the words of another participant who said, "The US is very different, and it has taken a while to get used to some characteristics," and another who said, "This country's values are different." One example of the difference is values, according to some participants, is the fact that the US stresses independence and individualism whereas most of the Caribbean culture is based on collectivism. An individual stated, "at home you can get a taxi ride home for free out of kindness and I always got lunch free by just dropping in on a friend."

US ideologies were listed as a value system difference that impacted culture shock. One participant actually stated, "alot of the ideologies here are different from back home;" for example, "the respect for time. The people at

home are more leisurely and being an hour late is not a disrespectful thing.”

Another example given to demonstrate the difference in ideology is what a few individuals deemed as a, “lack of respect for resources and wastefulness.”

Some of the disrespected and wasted resources listed, were food (being thrown away everyday), money, and credit cards. There was not much elaboration about the perception of the waste of resources.

A cultural difference reported, that created symptoms of culture shock, was language. Several participants, mainly in Texas, stated that the accents of the people around them took some time to understand. One stated, “their language is different, so I have to listen carefully to what they are saying and I can't use terms or certain words among them. For example, using ‘fat’ is commonly used at home.”

Cultural identity. Identity was reported as a source of culture shock. Participants reported being ambivalent about who they could or would link themselves to as it related to race. One stated that Caribbean people seemed more connected to the White Americans than to Black Americans. The reason given for connection to Whites more than Blacks was that Caribbean people had a stronger heritage that teaches them to be proud and how to survive. However, there was no explanation about the participant meant by heritage or survival. Additionally, some participants were concerned that Caribbean people were categorized as “Black” or “ethnic”. Again, there was no further explanation given.

Environmental factors. A few participants reported that the weather was a contributing factor to their culture shock. One student reported being enthusiastic about seeing snow prior to moving to the US. However, once arriving, the constant snow was something that exacerbated the sense of culture shock. The weather difference, according to the individual, caused even more homesickness. The state where the individual resided was not reported. Conversely, participants who moved to Texas reported that coming to the US during the summer months contributed their culture shock. It was reported that the temperature being over 100 degrees, may have also contributed to symptoms of culture shock. Additionally, missing the beach and the river baths was also stated as a possible caused for symptoms of culture shock.

Experienced no Culture Shock

The resounding reason given by participants who stated they did not experience culture shock was that fact that they were surrounded by other Caribbean people when they arrived in the US and currently. It was stated that having a Caribbean network helped individuals “acclimatize”. One participant stated, “It felt like I was in the Caribbean although I really wasn't. There are differences in the culture but we are made aware [through this network] of what to expect so it is not a major shock.” Participants from Midwestern State University, in Texas, repeatedly mentioned that they are part of an organization of over 250 Caribbean students. Someone stated, “Because of this dynamic

organization I cannot remember experiencing any of the symptoms [of culture shock].” This organization allowed them to interact with Caribbean students on a daily basis. One individual reported, “One does not get to experience the culture shock much when the people [Caribbean people] are around you.” “Our predecessors,” one stated, “took me under their wings and helped me to settle in the new environment. There were several activities planned for my group which helped to take our minds off home.” Additionally, it was stated that in addition to having other Caribbean students around, having a significant other in the US as well as having friends from the same home country, at the same school, or in the same city, helped to prevent experiencing symptoms of culture shock.

One individual attributed the appreciation of the opportunity to be in college in the US as the reason for not experiencing symptoms of culture shock. The individual stated, “I was able to cope with being away from home since, I knew it was a chance that few people get.”

Expression of Uncertainty

Someone stated being fine, and not experiencing symptoms of culture shock unless being faced with experiences of racism. The person also stated that coupled with that, it was difficult to deal with people (unspecified) thinking that being from the Caribbean means being backward. The individual further stated, “that some days there is a little sadness about being away from most

family members but I have also created a second home and a second family in the US has helped to reduce any culture shock.”

Ways of Dealing with Culture Shock

A few of the participants reported that they had developed ways of dealing with their culture shock. Faith and spiritual backgrounds were credited for shortened periods of culture shock. Additionally, trying to be positive and making an effort to keep smiling also was a reported method used to reduce symptoms of culture shock.

Summary

Included in this chapter were demographic data of the initial 72 participants, the correlation between academic self-efficacy and culture shock, Additionally, frequency distributions and a multiple regression analysis were also presented. Finally, the thematic responses to two qualitative questions were also reported.

Chapter five presents a discussion of the findings for this study, its implications for counseling and future research, as well as limitations of the study.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

Chapter five will discuss the results of the study and will provide a summary and an evaluation of the data results. It answers the research questions posed and based on these results, the investigator's interpretations will also be given. The limitations of the study, implications for future research, and recommendations for practice when working with Caribbean students especially when working with them on issues of academic self-efficacy and culture shock in US universities will also be discussed.

The purpose of this study was to examine how academic self-efficacy and culture shock influence Caribbean overseas students attending universities in the United States. The following research questions were addressed:

1. What is the relationship between academic self-efficacy and culture shock in the sample?
2. What is an emerging profile of academic self-efficacy in the sample?
3. What is an emerging profile of culture shock in the sample population?
4. What are the most common factors influencing academic self-efficacy according to the participants?
5. What are the most common factors influencing culture shock according to the participants?

To achieve the research goals and answer the research questions, the assistance of Caribbean overseas students, attending US universities, was

solicited. They were asked to volunteer to complete the demographic survey designed for the study, the College Academic Self-Efficacy Scale (CASES) (Owen & Froman, 1988) and Culture Shock Questionnaire (CSQ) (Mumford, 1998). Data were collected from 72 participants. Sixty-two participants completed the demographic survey, the CASES, and the CSQ surveys and these responses were used for the analysis of the data to answer three quantitative questions. Additionally, a modified grounded theory, thematic approach was employed to analyze the two qualitative data research questions, which were part of the demographic survey.

Research Questions Results Summary

Research Question One:

The calculated Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient showed a significant, positive correlation, $r = .288$, between the academic self-efficacy and culture shock of this sample, with a *p-value* of $.02$, at an alpha level of $.05$. However, based on the calculated coefficient of determination (R^2), the correlation between academic self-efficacy and culture shock had very little strength. The results showed that only a small percentage of common variation, 8.3% , was as a result of the relationship between the academic self-efficacy and culture shock; this means that, 91.7% of the variance is not dependent upon academic self-efficacy or culture shock.

The positive correlation, .288, between academic self-efficacy and culture shock was unexpected because it was anticipated that the more academic self-efficacy individuals had the less culture shock they had and vice versa. Therefore a much stronger correlation between the two variables was expected. A negative and a much stronger correlation were predicted because of previous research that purported that academic self-efficacy is linked to adjustment stressors, including culture shock (Chen, 1999). Additionally, a strong correlation was expected because of the anecdotes told and perceptions expressed over the years, by some Caribbean that there was a strong relationship between academic self-efficacy and culture shock. Since these suppositions were not supported by the results of the study, it is evident that more research is needed. A larger, more diverse representation of Caribbean overseas students is recommended. Additional investigation would help to ascertain whether or not, as with this study, there is in fact a positive correlation between culture shock and academic self-efficacy of Caribbean overseas students. Additionally, further research would help to determine if the investigator's hunches, about a negative correlation as well as a stronger correlation between the two variables, were correct.

Research Question Two

During the investigation for this study no previous research on the academic self-efficacy of Caribbean overseas students in American universities

was found; therefore question two was deemed important. Answers to this question would help to partially fill gaps in the professional literature about these students. The presented data should be accepted as the results of a preliminary investigation and will need further validation through future research on the subject.

As mentioned previously, participants could receive an overall score from zero to 165 on the CASES. However, in the current study the overall mean of participants was 136.06, with a standard deviation of 15.56. Additionally, for each question on the CASES, participants chose a value on a scale of one to five; one represented “very little” while five represented “quite a lot”. The average score for each question per person, across all the participants, was 4.1. This score was much higher than the overall mean score (2.8) of the participant in the samples used by Owen and Froman (1988) to norm the instrument, over a five-year period.

There were several factors that could have influenced the disparity between the scores of the original study and this study. A factor could be that Owen and Froman (1988), over the five-year period, used much larger *Ns* (3109 to 3149), in their study. However, in this in this study, the *N* was only 62. Another influencing factor could be that the participants in the original study were all undergraduate students who attended a land and sea grant university in the Northeastern United States. However, in the current study participants were

from varying universities throughout the US. Moreover, graduate students participated in the study and intuitively, graduate students have different academic and adjustment experiences from undergraduate students. This difference could potentially affect their academic self-efficacy and could explain the disparities in overall mean scores between studies. Another potential reason for differing scores between studies was because the ethnic compositions of the original samples are unknown. Knowing the ethnic makeup of the original samples would help to determining whether or not the norming sample is representative of the sample in this study. Additionally, it could help to explain the disparity in the overall means on the CASES between Owen and Froman (1988) study and the current study.

As expected, Caribbean overseas students attending US universities had high scores on the CASES, suggesting that they had a high sense of academic self-efficacy. These high scores supported the perceptions and anecdotes among some Caribbean people in and outside of US. However, although the results supported these perceptions and the expectations for this study, using a larger and more diverse sample of Caribbean overseas students could cause the high mean scores to be different perhaps lower. This is an indication that there is a need for more research to investigate how potentially lower scores, on the CASES, could affect symptoms of culture shock.

To help present an emerging academic self-efficacy profile of the sample, only several of the 12 demographic variables will be used to help develop this profile; gender, age, degree sought, and number of years in the US, were deemed to be the best demographic variables. It is important to note that the other demographic variables were also important to the study although they are not being discussed in relation to the results of this study.

Gender was deemed important because of the investigator's awareness of the socialization difference between males and females in the Caribbean. This difference is presumed by the investigator to affect the academic self-efficacy of Caribbean overseas students. From her own experience as a Caribbean woman and from observation, the researcher predicted that women would have a lower academic self-efficacy. However, this hunch was not validated by the results of the study. The mean score for females (137.25) was actually higher, though not by a lot (3.1 points), than males (134.04) on the CASES. The difference in scores could be explained by the fact that there were more females (39) than males (23) in the study. Therefore, more research is needed to determine if the results of the study are accurate. Although there was not a great difference in the *ns* for each gender, having more participants in each category would help to give a more accurate comparison.

Students mean scores based on age are spread out from the overall mean. Only the participants between the ages of 21-25 had a mean score

(134.24) that was close, with the other means ranging from 125.28 to 150.33.

This variability could be attributed to the disproportionate number of participants in each age group. For example, students between the ages of 36-41 only had three participants (4.83%) and had the highest average score of 150.33.

The result showing that the oldest participants had the highest CASES scores was not surprising. This is especially important since it supported the common perception articulated in some Caribbean communities, especially among older people, that older students have a stronger sense of academic efficacy. Older Caribbean students are perceived to be more serious about being in college than younger students. This seriousness is believed to boost individuals' confidence levels and in turn boost academic self-efficacy. This seriousness and academic efficacy is also attributed to the fact that older students had more responsibilities prior to university, such as working or being a parent.

Since the expectation was for older students to have a higher mean score, it was no surprise that the youngest participants had much lower average scores than the older participants. These students, between the ages of 18-20, had an average score of 125.28. However, again although this supported the expectations for the study's results, because there were only seven participants (11.29%) in this age group, more research is needed. A larger overall sample, with the intent of having more students between ages 18-20 as well as the other

age ranges, would allow for a better comparison with the other four assigned age groups in the study. Additionally, future research with a more diverse sample would also help to clarify the discrepancy in mean scores for each age group. The additional research would also help to determine if the scores for the current study are representative of Caribbean overseas students, in the US, in each age range.

The mean scores for degree sought, like age had categorical scores that were not close to the overall mean. Students seeking BAs had the lowest mean score, 132.15. Conversely, both MA and Ph.D. had mean scores above the overall mean. Their averages were 140.15 and 147.55 respectively. Intuitively, the students' mean scores increasing as their level of education increased, is plausible. However, like most of the other variables, since the *ns* are uneven for each degree sought, these results should be further investigated with a more proportionate participant distribution in each category.

For the "number of years" variable, the mean scores for each category were not close to the overall mean scores. As expected, the longer participants were in the US, the higher their CASES scores were. Students who were in the US over 10 years had the highest mean score, 149.2, on the CASES while those in the US less than five years had the lowest mean score, 132.53. However, similar to age, the *ns* in each group were disproportionate. There were 46 students in the US less than five years, 10 in the US between six to 10 years and

only five were in the US over 10 years. Therefore, although the expectation was for average CASES scores to be higher as the number of years in the US increased; because of the disparity in *ns* more research is required with a more even number of participants in each category.

Surprisingly, none of the demographic variables, including gender, age, degree sought, and the number of years in the US had significant linear relationship with total scores on the CASES at an alpha level of .05. However, although none of the demographic variables significance affected CASES scores, participants did report qualitatively, a relationship between some of the demographic variables and their academic self-efficacy. These qualitative factors will be further discussed as a part of research question four.

There could be several reasons for the lack of significant linear relationships between the demographic variables and the total average score on the CASES. One reason could be that a convenient sample was used, suggesting that the sample is not a true representation of Caribbean overseas students attending universities in the US. Additionally, 28 (45%) of the participants in the final sample attended the same university in the South Central US, whereas there were only one or two participants from the other universities. The other universities were spread throughout various regions of the US. Therefore to ascertain if in fact there are no significances between the demographic variables and the academic self-efficacy of participants, more

investigating is necessary with a more diverse and larger sample. The diverse group should include students from more universities spread throughout various regions of the United States.

Despite the fact that individual variables not having a significant linear relationship, the total score on the CASES and the total scores on the CSQ had a significant linear relationship at an alpha level of .05. This suggests that there is a relationship between the scores on the CASES and on the CSQ questionnaires. This also suggests that there is a relationship between academic self-efficacy and culture shock as Bandura (1997) purported. Additionally, this supports the results for research question one which indicated that there is a correlation between the scores on both scales, albeit that the relationship was unexpectedly positive.

Research Question Three

As with research question two, since the researcher could not find any previous research, related to Caribbean overseas students in American universities and their level of culture shock, question three seemed important. Again, answers to this question would help to partially fill gaps in the professional literature about these students in US universities. Also, the data presented should be accepted as the results of preliminary investigation and will need further validation with future research on the subject.

On the CSQ, participants chose a value on a scale from one to three for individual questions; one represented “not at all”, two represented occasionally, and three represented “most of the time”. Although students could receive an overall score from 12 to 36, the overall mean score for this study was 27.74. However, unlike with CASES categorical averages, the mean scores for all the variable categories on the CSQ were clustered very closely around the overall mean. This closeness to the overall mean was evident even when there was a disparity in the number of students in each category for the demographic variables.

The average score for each question per person, across all the participants, was 2.31. Therefore, in this study, based on the scale values, Caribbean overseas students experienced occasional culture shock. These results are not surprising since it was expected that like other international students, Caribbean overseas students would experience some culture shock. However, it was difficult to anticipate the level of culture shock, especially since the perception among some Caribbean communities is that Caribbean overseas students do not experience as much culture shock as other international students. The rationale for this perception often given is the fact that Caribbean students have a strong sense of academic self-efficacy which helps them to have an easier time adjusting to being in the US. Therefore, the expectation was that average scores on the CSQ would be similar for most categorical variable, with a

few exceptions. The expected exceptions were the following variables: “number of years in the US”, “lived elsewhere besides country of origin”, “visited the US at least once per year prior to college”, and “living with a relative or another Caribbean student”. However, even these exceptions, had mean scores that were also all very close to the overall mean. In fact, the mean score furthest from the overall mean was only 2.46 points away. This was the average score (30.2) for students who lived in the US between 6-10 years. Interestingly, however, although the results suggested that Caribbean overseas students experience occasional culture shock, there were 20 participants who reported qualitatively that they did not experience culture shock. Their responses will be discussed further when discussing the responses of research question five.

Since, however, there was a relatively small number ($N=62$) of Caribbean overseas students in the final sample for this study, further research with a larger sample of these students would help to provide a more accurate comparison between students who reported experiencing occasional culture shock and those who may experience either high or low culture shock. Additionally, it would be helpful to complete further research with a larger sample to determine if the variables the investigator expected to have larger average scores would be different to the ones in this study. Moreover, with a larger sample it would be possible to investigate further how high and low scores on the CSQ relate to the symptoms of culture shock Caribbean overseas students experiences. In

addition, further research would allow for a comparison between the responses of the participants who said they experienced no culture shock qualitatively and their CSQ scores.

Of the four variables listed previously that were expected to have higher average CSQ scores, based on the results of a multiple linear regression analysis, only one variable had a significant linear relationship. The “number of years living in the US” had a significant relationship with CSQ scores at an alpha of .01, with a p -value of .009. Intuitively, it was expected that there would be a linear relationship between students’ length of time in the US and their level of culture shock. The expectation was that the longer participants were in the US, the less symptoms of culture shock they would experience. Surprising, however, although the “number of years in the US” was the only variable that was significant at a .01 level, it was not reported among the qualitative responses as having influenced symptoms of culture shock for participants. Similarly, the anticipation was that the “live with a relative or with other Caribbean students” variable would also have a significant relationship with CSQ scores. However, this variable had a p -value of .07, which is relatively close to an alpha level of .05. Therefore, it is possible that with a larger sample that variable may have been significant at a .05 alpha level. However, more research needs to be done in order to know for sure if a larger sample would in fact make a difference.

Research Question Four

Based on the responses to the demographic survey, common themes were extrapolated and reported. Some common themes found that affected the academic self-efficacy of overseas Caribbean students studying in the US were: educational background, faith in God, finances, age and maturity, influence and support of others, self-determination, and previous success of others as well as previous personal success.

Not surprisingly, “coming from a British educational system”, was the most common reason reported to have influenced academic self-efficacy across the sample. In fact, anecdotes the researcher heard over time, about the British school system having an effect on academic self-efficacy of Caribbean overseas students, served as one of the motivations for conducting this study. As a result of this motivation, one of the intents of the study was to empirically support or to disprove the perception that a British school system had a strong effect on the academic efficacy of Caribbean overseas students. Additionally, noteworthy is the fact that Caribbean students who attended schools modeled from the US system and from the Dutch system echoed the sentiment of the students from the British system that a Caribbean education provided them with a strong belief in their academic abilities.

It is common to hear that this academic background causes students to excel and to find the US academic setting to be an easy one. However, it was

unusual to hear, as one participant reported, that the American school system was difficult and more advanced than what s/he was used to. Often, Caribbean overseas student, especially those from British background, report having to get used to the differing teaching methods and testing formats in the US but not about difficulty because of an advanced system.

Knowledge of “God” and “His” guidance as well as growing up in a strong church community were the main reasons for how faith in “God” influenced academic efficacy. Participants did not specify which “God” they were referring to. However, based on her own experiences, the researcher speculated that participants were referring to the “Christian God”. This suspicion was as a result of the supposition that Christianity, including Catholicism, was the predominant religion in the Caribbean. However, the researcher was cognizant that this assumption was because of her own experiences religious while living in the Caribbean. She is also cognizant that the assumption could be deemed as a researcher’s bias. Future research would help to clarify what Caribbean overseas students mean when they refer to “God”. Moreover, it would help to ascertain whether or not these students are in fact referring to a “Christian God”.

The most common reasons for how finances affect academic efficacy were, the high cost of US education for international students, the lack of personal resources and financial aid to pay for the high cost of this education. Though not mentioned by participants in this study, from past conversations with

other Caribbean overseas students and many parents, one reason why the high cost of education affects students is because of currency conversion rates between the money of their home countries and the US dollar. For example, the current exchange rate between the Jamaican and the United States dollar is \$71.85 Jamaican to 1 US dollar (<http://www.eccb-centralbank.org/Currency/exchange.asp#exchangerates>, 2008). Additionally, according to the participants, finances influenced academic efficacy because of the belief that getting an education, in the US, was a major investment. For some they were making the investment for themselves while for others their parents were making the investment. Regardless of who was making the investment, participants reported that it was an impetus to do well and in turn doing well boosted their academic efficacy.

The influence and support of parents, parental expectation, and the support of other family members and friends, were reported as boosters of academic self-efficacy. It is not surprising that these influences had an impact on the academic efficacy Caribbean overseas students since the Caribbean is often thought of as a collectivist society (Delgado-Romero & Sanabria, 2007) and the input of parents, other family members, and friends is not uncommon. This input extends beyond academic support into personal issues individuals may experience. In keeping with the influence of other, many participants reported that their academic efficacy was influenced by the previous success of family

members, other Caribbean students, and their own academic. Some also reported their own successes as contributing to their academic efficacy. These attributions reflected previous literature about influence so self-efficacy, three sources of efficacy believed by Bandura's (1986, 1997). These sources of academic self-efficacy would include vicarious experiences (the success of others who attended university prior to participant), enactive mastery experience (personal previous success such as good grades), and verbal persuasion (the support and strong influence of family members).

Being surrounded by and supported by other Caribbean overseas students, attending the same university or living in the surrounding area were also reported as having influenced academic efficacy. It is not surprising that being around other like students had a positive impact on the participants. The researcher presumed that most of the students were coming from collectivist communities. As a result of this presumption it was expected that being surrounded by a community of individuals from similar cultural backgrounds would help to reduce feelings of culture shock and in turn enhance academic self-efficacy.

As previously mentioned, for this sample age has no linear relationship with academic self-efficacy. Additionally, previous work experiences before moving the US also did not to have a significant linear relationship with academic self-efficacy for this sample. However, these two variables were strung together

throughout the responses to research question four as factors influencing academic efficacy. Therefore, further research is necessary to understand how the two variables may be interacting with each other, causing neither influence academic self-efficacy score for this sample.

Research Question Five

Students were asked to indicate whether or not they experienced culture shock while attending university in the US. Thirty eight reported having experienced culture shock, while 20 reported not having experienced culture shock. Additionally, one participant answered both “yes and no” and, therefore, the main reasons given for that response were also reported. Additionally, although not asked, some participants chose to share how they dealt with their symptoms of culture shock.

Common themes found among the responses of participants who stated they experienced symptoms of culture shock were: Loneliness and feelings of not fitting in, anxiety and depression, difference in value systems, cultural differences and cultural identity issues, and environmental factors. Some participants reported that their loneliness was attributed to missing home and the closeness of those they left behind, not having members of the family and close friends in the US, the general lack of community and togetherness of their home countries, and starting college at an older age. Students from the US Virgin

Islands, though considered as US citizens, also reported being lonely for similar reasons.

Individuals attributed some of their feelings of anxiety and depression to perceiving that they did not fit in, insecurity about new environment (physically and emotionally), pressure to perform exceptionally and overcompensate because of being an international student, and proving themselves in the classroom. Additionally, financial hardship and getting used to a new financial system, including applying and obtaining credit were listed. Some reported that this anxiety was manifested through sleep disturbance, irritability, and frustration.

Cultural difference was also reported as a source of symptoms of culture shock. This included the fact that the US was an individualist society whereas most of the Caribbean culture is based on collectivism. Another thing listed was language and manner of speech. This included understanding accents and acceptable word usage. Along with cultural differences, cultural identity was also listed as a factor that contributed to symptoms of culture shock. Ambivalence about which race to associate with and feelings of being required to be categorized as “Black” or “ethnic” were also reported as sources. The participants did not explain these perceptions substantively. Perhaps they do not understand the feelings and their causes well enough to elaborate on them or they merely chose not to share those thoughts.

Finally, environmental factors were listed as a source of culture shock. Included in this category were the difference in weather (both in the summer and the winter) as well as missing the weather at home and feelings of insecurity where they lived and on campus.

Those who reported not having experienced symptoms of culture shock resoundingly attributed this to being surrounded by other Caribbean people and having predecessors who welcomed them when they first arrived in the US. It was stated that a strong Caribbean network some said helped with the adjustment process, as well as having a significant other or close friends in the same university or city also prevented symptoms of culture shock.

Only one participant stated both “yes” and “no” to having symptoms of culture shock. The individual stated that experiencing racism, and perceiving that “people” saw the Caribbean as backwards, were the reasons for feeling symptoms of culture shock. This, the participant said was the only time there were symptoms of culture shock. Beyond this, there were no symptoms of culture shock.

Though not asked, some participants stated that their faith and spiritual backgrounds shortened their period of culture shock. Being positive was also listed as a way of dealing with culture shock and reducing the symptoms.

Participants, who reported experiencing symptoms of culture shock, seem to experience varying symptoms of the six distinct aspects of culture shock

stated by Taft (1977). Many reported what he referred to as “a sense of loss and feelings of deprivation in regard to friends, status, profession and possession.” Others reported feelings of “surprise, anxiety, even disgust and indignation after becoming aware of cultural differences”. Despite these reports, the overall mean on the CSQ score (27.74) was about eight points below the total receivable score of 36. This is noteworthy since instrument was created by Mumford (1998), based on Taft’s (1977) six aspects of culture shock. Of course, however, the average total score was also affected by participants who said that they did not experience any culture shock. This means that further investigation should be completed to compare the responses of participants who had higher culture shock scores to the ones who had lower scores.

Waters (1994) stated that Caribbean immigrants felt immense pressure in the US to identify on as “Black” and are often associated with black Americans instead of with other immigrants. Participants in this study also reported having the experience of the pressure of identifying as being Black. Interestingly, however, a participant stated that Caribbean students feel more connected to their White counterparts than they do with their Black counterparts. This perception was only stated by one participant; therefore, it is not possible to generalize this to Caribbean overseas students in US universities. However, if researching the cultural identity of this population it would be a variable worth

investigating. This is especially since this perception is also anecdotally posited by other Caribbean immigrants.

Limitations to the Study

Like all other studies, there were several limitations to this study. One of the limitations of the study was that the investigator was unable to obtain the total number of Caribbean overseas students attending US universities. Moreover, even if the total number of Caribbean international university students in the US was accessible from an agency such as the United States Department of Homeland Security (USDHS), that number would not be a true representation of the sample in the current study. It would not be a true representation because students from the United States Virgin Islands (USVI) and Puerto Rico (PR) were included as part of the Caribbean overseas students' sample even though they were US citizens. They were included because obviously they grew up in the Caribbean and the researcher suspected that they would share some of the same issues regarding their academic self-efficacy and culture shock as other Caribbean overseas students. Not having the total number of Caribbean overseas university students in the US prevented the investigator from knowing what percentage of these students was represented in the current study. Thus rendering it difficult to generalize, posing a threat to external validity.

Another limitation was that there was not a large enough sample represented from each school or region. Most of the participants, 33, came from

Midwestern State in Texas, a school reported as having a strong Caribbean Student's Association. Since so many of the participants were from one school, the ability to generalize to the population the sample was to represent hampered. Similarly, because of the small number of participants in the final sample, the distribution of participants in each category, for each variable, was unevenly represented. Therefore, the results of this study were more than likely not representative for this reason.

Another limitation was that only self report surveys were used to collect the data. This potentially caused response bias from the participants. Additionally, some participants may have blindly responded to questions without actually reading the questions, hence rendering the results inaccurate. Another limitation of this study was the method used to recruit participants. The investigator used a convenience sample, utilizing snowball sampling to recruit participants; therefore, it is likely that a good cross section from the overall Caribbean overseas university student population was not represented. Using this method to recruit participants meant that the response and return rates of the survey were unknown to the investigator. Additionally, the investigator did not know how many students potentially received the survey link that led to the online survey.

Another limitation of the study was the analysis the qualitative data. Although an auditor was used, only the researcher coded the data and extracted

with emerging themes. Having more coders would have made the study more defensible (Taylor & Bogdan, 1998). Additionally, because the researcher was the only coder the potential for researcher's bias increased. Another limitation was that the auditor was not trained specifically for the current study. The researcher assumed that the previous skills of the auditor would have been enough for the auditor to complete an audit of the data.

Future Research

There are still gaps in the literature about Caribbean overseas students in the US. Therefore, it is important to continue to try to find out more about the population. Some recommendations for future research are presented but these are not exhaustive.

Based on the previous literature, a linear relationship was expected between academic self-efficacy and culture shock. Chen (1999), stated that academic self-efficacy has been linked to adjustment related stressors (academic and social), including acculturation and culture shock. Chen also stated that these stressors can affect a student's academic efficacy beliefs and vice versa. Similarly, Bandura (1986) stated that emotional adaptation is aided when individuals have a strong sense of self-efficacy about their abilities and competence. Maddux and Meier (1995) also stated that a strong sense of self-efficacy will also help individuals approach challenging situations without incapacitating anxiety and confusion (potential symptoms of culture shock).

Therefore, finding a non-linear relationship between academic self-efficacy and culture shock in the current study suggested that more research is necessary. This additional research should include a larger, more representative sample of Caribbean overseas students attending US universities.

The apparent discrepancies between the participants' quantitative and qualitative responses demand future research. This would help to determine if there was consistency between the two forms of data. Additionally, inspecting qualitative responses of participants who scored high on the CASES as well as those with lower scores, to see what differences or similarities may exist, could be informative.

There is also the potential for qualitative data to be collected through personal interviews. Interviewing could potentially yield richer data since the questions would not be a part of an online survey that participants could hurry to respond, giving incomplete responses. Coders would also be utilized to help ensure that researcher's bias did not affect the richness of the emerging themes. Additionally, an auditor would be trained specifically for the study and his or her previous experience would not be solely relied upon.

A comparison between students and other immigrants would also be an important future research thrust. Making a comparison between the two groups would be important since the experiences of other Caribbean immigrants were used as the foundation for the possible experiences of students. It would be

prudent to find out if these students truly believe the anecdotes and perceptions purported about their strong sense of academic self-efficacy. Additionally, it would be helpful to know if they thought that their levels of culture shock were less than other international students.

Future research would not only help fill the gap in the professional literature about overseas Caribbean student population, it would also help provide counselors who may be working with these students with options that may help them better serve them.

Recommendations for Practice

Based on the literature and the results of this study, there appears to be some useful recommendations for practice when working with Caribbean overseas students. The suggestions offer ways of dealing with the relationship between academic self-efficacy and culture shock of these students. However, like suggestions for future research, these suggestions are not exhaustive.

Chen (1999) believed that academic self-efficacy is linked to adjustment related stressors, including culture shock. She states that these stressors could affect students and their academic performance. Therefore, it is important for professionals working with Caribbean overseas students to be cognizant of ways to help these students with their general adjustment concerns as well as dealing with symptoms of culture shock. Additionally, helping professionals need to be

cognizant of how culture shock affects the students' academic efficacy and vice versa.

One way to help students adjust to their new environment and in turn hopefully enhance their academic efficacy is through social support. Kessler, Price, and Wortman, (1985) stated that social support refers to the ways interpersonal relationships seemingly protect people from the harmful effects of stress. It may also be viewed as social relationships assist individuals, directly or indirectly, to find social associations that would be perceived as loving, caring, and readily available (Ibañez et. al, 2003). This support may be as formal or informal and counselors would be considered as sources of formal support. Social organizations such as Caribbean Students Associations (CSA), on the other hand, would be categorized as informal support. When working with these students, counselors can assist them to reduce symptoms of culture shock by helping them to be proactive in seeking out informal support systems. These support systems could include organizations at their university or in the community. Additionally, helping them to identify individuals from the Caribbean or from similar cultural backgrounds, who could become a part of a social network, could also be helpful to these students. This suggestion is supported by the fact that students in this study, who reported being actively involved in CSAs, and living with other groups of students, reported having fewer symptoms of culture shock. This is not to say, however, that these students can only find

social support with people from similar Caribbean backgrounds. In fact, Arthur (2004) believes that it should not be assumed that foreign students naturally gravitate towards people of similar ethnic backgrounds. She stated that differences in temperament, personality and interests will impact the degree of compatibility between students. She continued that for this reason, it is important for professionals working with international students to have a general understanding of the cultural background of the student. Therefore, counselors working with some Caribbean students should be aware that they may not be comfortable or have no interest in spending time with other Caribbean students. This may require the counselor to assist the students to find other sources of social support, such as other student organizations on campus or a religious organization (if the student would like to be a part of one).

Another recommendation for counseling would be for counselors to utilize the social learning theory (SLT) approach. Bandura's (1986, 1997) social cognitive theory (SCT) was born out of SLT. This approach may help Caribbean students cope with culture shock and achieve higher academic self-efficacy is because it combines both behavioral and cognitive approaches. Therefore, one recommendation when working with these students would be to help them process their symptoms of culture shock and how those symptoms might be affecting academic efficacy and in turn their academic performance. For example, there were a few participants who reported feelings of insecurity about

their physical environment and about the people around them. Counselors could help students examine the manifestation of their anxiety by assigning specific behavioral tasks such as keeping a journal. This could help them come to a better understanding of as why they may be experiencing anxiety. This approach may also be helpful for students to assess their academic efficacy. It could be used to help them discover factors that may be influencing that academic efficacy and how this knowledge can help improve upon their academic efficacy.

Finally, counselors should to be aware of the inclination to associate Caribbean overseas students with the US ethnic group they most resemble. This inclination could cause the unique needs of these students to go underserved. Just like working with other international students, it is important for counselors to familiarize themselves with the differences in culture. This is not only for the Caribbean region as a whole, but the differences in cultures between islands.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A
Informed consent email
and
First page of electronic survey

Dear Caribbean international students,

I would like to request your assistance with my dissertation study, titled “Relationship between the Academic Self-Efficacy and Culture Shock among Caribbean College Students in the United States,” an online study that examines academic self-efficacy (people’s beliefs about their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required of them in an academic institution) and culture shock (a process within cross-cultural transition that could potentially be stressful) in the lives of Caribbean international college students. This study is being conducted at North Carolina State University as partial requirement for the obtainment of my Ph.D. in Counselor Education.

It is hoped that this study will investigate the relationship between academic self-efficacy and culture shock, and contribute to a better understanding in the lives of international Caribbean student their adjustment process. All information that you provide is anonymous; there will be no way of identifying you after you submit your answers. The survey will take approximately 20 minutes to complete.

If you are willing to assist me with this important project, please click the following link to connect to the survey:

https://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=N62ym9pD0URDzUYbfuSCHw_3d_3d. Additionally, completion and electronic submission of the survey will indicate your consent for participation in this study.

Participation in this study is entirely voluntary and you may withdraw consent and terminate participation at any time without consequence. The risks associated with this study are minimal. However, some individuals may tire while answering the questions. If you would like additional information about this study or if you would like to discuss any discomforts you may experience, please send your request to Arline Edwards-Joseph, at (919) 521.8632, (919) 946.2446 or via e-mail aedwards@ncsu.edu.

If you have any questions about your rights as a participant in this research project, please contact you may contact Dr. David Kaber, Chair of the NCSU IRB for the Use of Human Subjects in Research Committee, Box 7514, NCSU Campus (919/515-3086) or Mr. Matthew Ronning, Assistant Vice Chancellor, Research Administration, Box 7514, NCSU Campus (919/513-2148).

Please note that you MUST be 18 years of age or older in order to participate in the study.

Thank you for your assistance.

Arline Edwards-Joseph

Appendix B
Demographic Form

Gender: Female Male

Age: 18-20 21-25 26-30 31-35 36-41

42+

Do you have a student visa? Yes No

If yes, what type?

If no, what is your residency status?

What is your country of origin?

In which country did you grow up?

Did you visit the US at least once per year before coming to school?

Yes No

Did you visit any country, other than the US, at least once per year before coming to school?

Yes No

Did you come to the US immediately after secondary school or A-levels?

Yes No

Did you work full time prior to coming to the US to attend college? Yes No

Prior to coming to the US, did you have relatives who went to college?

Yes No

If yes, in what country did they do so?

What university are you currently attending?

What is the city and state where your current university is located?

Degree Currently Seeking:

Undergraduate Master's Doctorate

What is your current major?

For graduate students, what was your undergraduate major?

For masters students, what was your undergraduate major

For doctoral Students, what was your:

undergraduate degrees

masters degrees

How long have you been in the US?

0-4 years 5-8 years 8 or more years

Do you live with relatives or with other Caribbean students? Yes No

The term "academic self-efficacy beliefs" refers to people's beliefs about their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required of them in an academic institution.

What are some factors that you believe influence (d) your academic self-efficacy here in the U.S.?

Culture shock is characterize by symptoms such as anxiety, depression, sleeping problems, fatigue, irritability, loneliness, forgetfulness, nostalgia, and feelings of not fitting in? Do you think you have experienced culture shock here in the US?

Briefly explain your answer whether YES or NO. If so, what are some factors that you believe influence your acculturation to the United States?

Appendix C

Arline Edwards-Joseph
North Carolina State University
Raleigh, NC 27695

12 December 2007

Dear Arline,

Thank you for your inquiry about the College Academic Self-Efficacy Scale (CASES). You are certainly welcome to use CASES. I've attached a copy of the scale. Here are a few summary points about the scale.

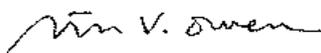
Items are scored as A ("quite a lot") = 5...E ("very little") = 1. On the other hand, because we read from right to left, data entry is faster letting A = 1, and E = 5. If you enter data with A = 1, then let the computer recode the values so that A becomes 5, B becomes 4, etc. In calculating an overall CASES score, we prefer calculating a mean rather than a sum.

You may wish to modify questionnaire instructions to best fit your application. For example, if you need informed consent, you might say something like "Filling out this questionnaire is completely voluntary and confidential. There are no penalties for not participating, and you may quit at any time."

The next page shows the CASES items. Following that is a conversation about scoring CASES, plus some normative data.

Best wishes in your research.

Sincerely,



Steven V. Owen, Professor
Department of Epidemiology & Biostatistics
University of Texas Health Science Center at San Antonio
7703 Floyd Curl Dr., MC 7802
San Antonio, TX 78229-3900
Ph: 210-567-5866
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Appendix D

College Questionnaire

DIRECTIONS. We are interested in learning more about you to help us improve our program. Your responses are strictly confidential and will not be shown to others. Do not sign your name. We hope you will answer each item, but there are no penalties for omitting an item.

Male _____ Female _____ Age _____

Estimate your current grade point average _____

How much confidence do you have about doing each of the behaviors listed below? Circle the letters that best represent your confidence.



- | <i>Lots</i> | <i>Little</i> | |
|-------------|---------------|---|
| A B C D E | | 1. Taking well-organized notes during a lecture. |
| A B C D E | | 2. Participating in a class discussion. |
| A B C D E | | 3. Answering a question in a large class. |
| A B C D E | | 4. Answering a question in a small class. |
| A B C D E | | 5. Taking "objective" tests (multiple-choice, T-F, matching) |
| A B C D E | | 6. Taking essay tests. |
| A B C D E | | 7. Writing a high quality term paper. |
| A B C D E | | 8. Listening carefully during a lecture on a difficult topic. |
| A B C D E | | 9. Tutoring another student. |
| A B C D E | | 10. Explaining a concept to another student. |
| A B C D E | | 11. Asking a professor in class to review a concept you don't |

understand.

- A B C D E 12. Earning good marks in most courses.
- A B C D E 13. Studying enough to understand content thoroughly.
- A B C D E 14. Running for student government office.
- A B C D E 15. Participating in extracurricular events (sports, clubs).
- A B C D E 16. Making professors respect you.
- A B C D E 17. Attending class regularly.
- A B C D E 18. Attending class consistently in a dull course.
- A B C D E 19. Making a professor think you're paying attention in class.
- A B C D E 20. Understanding most ideas you read in your texts.
- A B C D E 21. Understanding most ideas presented in class.
- A B C D E 22. Performing simple math computations.
- A B C D E 23. Using a computer.
- A B C D E 24. Mastering most content in a math course.
- A B C D E 25. Talking to a professor privately to get to know him or her.
- A B C D E 26. Relating course content to material in other courses.
- A B C D E 27. Challenging a professor's opinion in class.
- A B C D E 28. Applying lecture content to a laboratory session.
- A B C D E 29. Making good use of the library.
- A B C D E 30. Getting good grades.
- A B C D E 31. Spreading out studying instead of cramming.
- A B C D E 32. Understanding difficult passages in textbooks.
- A B C D E 33. Mastering content in a course you're not interested in.

Thanks for your help!

Appendix E

Culture Shock Questionnaire (Mumford, 1998)

1. Do you feel strain from the effort to adapt to a new culture?
 2. Most of the time
 1. Occasionally
 0. Not at all.
2. Do you feel anxious or awkward when meeting local people?
 2. Most of the time
 1. Occasionally
 0. Not at all
3. Have you been missing your family and friends back home?
 2. Most of the time
 1. Occasionally
 0. Not at all
4. When talking to people, can you make sense of their gestures or facial expressions?
 2. Not at all
 1. Occasionally
 0. Most of the time
5. Do you feel generally accepted by the local people in the new culture?
 2. No
 1. Not sure
 0. Yes
6. Do you feel uncomfortable if people stare at you when you go out?
 2. Very uncomfortable
 1. Slightly uncomfortable
 0. Not at all

7. Do you ever wish to escape from your new environment altogether?
- 2. Most of the time
 - 1. Occasionally
 - 0. Not at all
8. When you go out shopping, do you feel as though people may be trying to cheat you?
- 2. Most of the time
 - 1. Occasionally
 - 0. Not at all
9. Do you ever feel confused about your role or identity in the new culture?
- 2. Most of the time
 - 1. Occasionally
 - 0. Not at all
10. Are you finding it an effort to be polite to Americans?
- 2. Most of the time
 - 1. Occasionally
 - 0. Not at all
11. Have you found things in your new environment shocking or disgusting?
- 2. Many things
 - 1. A few things
 - 0. None
12. Do you ever feel helpless or powerless when trying to cope with the new culture?
- 2. Most of the time
 - 1. Occasionally
 - 0. Not at all

Appendix F

Letter of Attestation

May 9, 2008

To Whom It May Concern:

I was asked and agreed to be the auditor for Arline Edwards-Joseph's dissertation. More specifically, I was asked to serve as the auditor for the qualitative data analysis which corresponded with Mrs. Edwards-Joseph's research questions four and five of her study. At the time I agreed to do this, Mrs. Edwards-Joseph was a doctoral candidate in the Department of Counselor Education at North Carolina State University. My role as the auditor, as I understood it, was to help increase the validity of research questions four and five of her dissertation. I would do so by reviewing the data Mrs. Edwards-Joseph collected from participants as well as review her analysis of the data.

Based upon our initial meeting, I agreed to and adhered to the following:

- (1) I would complete the auditing process as a colleague, with no monetary compensation.
- (2) I would treat the data as confidential and would keep them in a locked filing cabinet in my office at work.
- (3) I would use the methodology chapter of the dissertation, provided to me by Mrs. Edwards-Joseph, to get a better understanding of the study. I would use my understanding of this chapter to help me with the auditing process.
- (4) I would take two weeks to review the data and come up with recommendations to be shared with Mrs. Edwards-Joseph when my analysis was completed.
- (5) I would receive the raw data as well as Mrs. Edwards-Joseph's initial analysis of the data, including the coding and the major categories of themes she had recorded. This information would be used solely in the auditing process of this dissertation.

I have reviewed the data for this study and I found that the data was relevant to the research questions. Additionally, the interpretation of the data appears to be aligned with the data collected.

For professional reasons and because of the nature of the organization I work with, it is my decision at this time not to disclose my name or the name of organization of which I am affiliated. I made this decision after I was informed by Mrs. Edwards-Joseph that her dissertation would be uploaded to the Internet.

Appendix G

Auditor's Background Information

I have very little knowledge beyond what Mrs. Edwards-Joseph has shared with me in the past about her own experiences and the experiences of other Caribbean students. Therefore, my opinions about responses given by the participants in this study are unbiased. Additionally, I do not have a vested interest in the study's outcomes and although I have had training in cultural diversity issues, I have not had any formal training or coursework regarding Caribbean overseas students.

I completed a Ph.D. in Applied Anthropology, with a concentration in social formations and processes, at a university in North Carolina public university system in 2003. Through completing my dissertation as well as on the job research, I have engaged in extensive qualitative research. In addition, for the last seven years, while serving as the Associate Director for a non-profit organization in North Carolina, I have worked with African American and Latina teen mothers in crisis.

For professional reasons and because of the nature of the organization I work with, it is my decision at this time not to disclose my name or the name of organization of which I am affiliated. I made this decision after I was informed by Mrs. Edwards-Joseph that her dissertation would be uploaded to the Internet.